The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 12, 1887.

The Week.

THE approval by the President of rules extending the competitive principle to cover promotion in the civil service, as well as the entrance upon it, is the longest step forward which the reform has taken since the passage of the law of 1883. The spoilsmen of the Democratic party have complained because Mr. Cleveland lived up to the original law, and have only been willing to excuse his course as a disagreeable necessity. His response is a voluntary extension of the system, under the discretion which the law—so fortunately, as it proves—left the President. It was a happy coincidence that Mr. Cleveland should have taken this important step on the day that the Kentucky Democratic Convention's slur upon the reform was published.

With the exception of Tennessee and North Carolina, Kentucky is the most ignorant State in the Union, according to the fairest test attainable, which is the proportion of her white population above the age of twenty-one who are unable to write their names. While in Nebraska and Kansas there are only thirty and thirty-one such men out of every thousand, and in New York and Massachusetts but fifty-five and sixty-two—nearly all of whom prove to be foreigners who came to this country without learning their letters and too old to attend school—in Kentucky 173 men out of every thousand have to make their mark when they sign a document. A correspondent of the Louisville *Commercial* recently quoted Gen. Fayette Hewitt, the Auditor of the State, as saying of the men who are elected to the Legislature, that "numbers of them can neither read nor write, and not only that, but they pride themselves on the fact, and never fail to let the body know that the people elected them to this honored position, notwithstanding their ignorance." Many of these have been so ignorant that they could not write their names to their vouchers on drawing their pay.

The resolution of the Kentucky Democratic Convention regarding civil-service reform is precisely what one should have looked for from such a body in such a State. We quote it in full, because it is well to put on record what even in Kentucky before many years will be regarded as a political curiosity.

"We favor honest civil-service reform, by which we mean the enforcement of the faithful performance by persons appointed to office of all public duties intrusted to them; and to this end, as well as to the maintenance of the spirit of our representative form of government, we demand the strictest measure of personal and party responsibility, and are opposed to the substitution in room of this of life tenure, a civil pension list, and all other appendages of a bureaucratic system foreign to the genius of our institutions and people."

This resolution, as we have said, is what was to have been expected, and signifies nothing. But there was one feature of the Convention which was not thus to have been counted upon, and which is in the highest degree significant. Congressman Taulbee, who represents the mountain district in Eastern Kentucky, consisting of twenty of the most backward and ignorant counties, and who naturally is a bitter enemy of civil-service reform, went to the Convention resolved to defeat any movement looking towards the endorsement of the reforming President, and he made a speech against any deliverance of that sort. But the Convention adopted a resolution quite as strong as that which Mr. Taulbee had opposed, its language being as follows: "We declare our confidence in the integrity and conscientious devotion to duty of President Grover Cleveland, and congratulate the country and the party upon the accession of a Democratic Administration, national, economic, and clean; and we particularly applaud the President for the fidelity and courage with which he has protected the Treasury from pillage by his exercise of the veto power." Moreover, the leaders of the party—such men as Senator Beck, Speaker Carlisle, and Representative Breckinridge—made speeches which mean much more than any mere resolution could do. While yielding so far to the ignorance and prejudice in the party as to concede that "the Administration has not satisfied us all," they bestowed warm praise upon it as a whole, and declared that the President must be heartily sustained by the Democratic party.

The question, what shall be done with the surplus in the national treasury, is becoming a burning one, there being only $18,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds subject to call. Congress had this subject before it all of the last session, but did nothing either to reduce taxation or to dispose of the expected accumulations of money. Two methods of emptying the Treasury are open to the Executive in the absence of new legislation, viz., to buy bonds in the open market, or to pay interest on bonds in advance of its maturity, at such rate of discount as the recipients may agree to. The latter method has been resorted to occasionally by many successive secretaries, without any discount, but only at short periods (two or three months) before the interest became due. Now the question may arise whether it is best to pay interest in advance for longer periods, or to buy bonds in the open market at a high and advancing premium. We think that business men will agree that the former method of getting rid of the surplus is the better of the two. There is no limit to the premium that will be asked for bonds if the Government becomes a forced purchaser. In fact, speculation in the 4 per cents has already taken a fresh start on the hypothesis that the Government would soon become a buyer. Whenever the Secretary comes into the market for this purpose he will find it "cornered" against him. The public would be very much dissatisfied if they should see the Treasury made the victim of speculators, and especially bondholding speculators.

The alternative, as we have said, is to pay interest in advance until such time as Congress shall take steps to dispose of the surplus, making such discount for the advance as the bondholders may agree to. Suppose that the Secretary, having the means in hand to pay the interest in advance for six months, say $24,000,000, and a rapidly accumulating reserve, advertises that he will pay the money to all bondholders who will accept it at a discount of 2 per cent. per annum. Nearly everybody can use money at a better rate than 2 per cent. But the Government cannot use a surplus at all except to pay its debts. It has no other possible investment. To hoard money in ever-increasing amounts is to bring on a commercial crisis. Anything is better than that. Logically it would be better to pay the interest in advance without discount than to lock up the circulating medium of the country. But the probability is that the holders of bonds would generally accept the interest in advance at a discount of 2 per cent. Is there any objection legal or moral to such a proceeding? As regards its legality, it may be urged that there is plenty of precedent for it. Although the interest on the public debt has never been paid more than two or three months in advance, the principle is the same as though it were three years. The reason in both cases would be the same, *i. e.*, to avoid the locking up of money, the cramping of business, the crippling of industry. If it be said that Congress when next convened may desire to make other disposition of the money, the answer is that, having got its liabilities for interest out of the way, it can use its current receipts for the desired purpose. The net assets of the Treasury are not impaired.

A law was enacted at the last session of Congress conferring a very peculiar jurisdiction upon the Court of Claims, which throws a significant side light upon our accounting system. It provides that the Court shall, after due notice has been given to the head of the proper department and to the Attorney-General, proceed to hear the petitions of those Government officers, agents, and contractors who allege that they are indebted as such to the United States; that application has been made to the proper department of the Government for an adjustment, that three years have elapsed since the application, and that the account upon which the indebtedness arises remains unsettled. The petitions of guarantors, sureties or personal representatives of such parties are equally entitled under this law to a hearing. It then becomes the duty of the court "to ascertain the amount, if any, due the United States on said account," and the payment of this amount shall discharge such obligation. If not paid, it may be recovered by suit brought at any time within three years. After that time the claim and the original indebtedness shall be for ever barred. It seems at first blush very odd that a debtor should be allowed to bring a suit against his creditor, based upon the account from which the indebtedness springs, but a little reflection enables us to comprehend the mischief of the

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old system which this law attempts to suppress. In the first place, many agents of the Government are, as the accounting officers will be the first to admit, only nominal or apparent debtors. That is, there are items yet to be credited which will balance their accounts, but a deficiency appropriation is needed in order to warrant their allowance; or vouchers of a certain kind are required to support charges made, which it is impossible to secure, on account of the death of the officer, or those from whom he made purchases; or the accounts have not been received at the Treasury, being in the pigeonholes of the department of which the officer was a subordinate, and through which his accounts were transmitted.

Perhaps the greatest evil designed to be corrected by this law is the indefinite liability of sureties and heirs of Government officers. Owing to the sense of security afforded by the existence of a bond, many instances of the grossest carelessness and tardiness now occur, both on the part of the officer in making his returns and the Treasury accountants in revising them and in pressing their settlement. After many years, suit is instituted against those who have even forgotten that they were sureties. In most of these cases the Government gains nothing, either because of the insolvency of the parties, or because of the adverse instructions of the Court. The English Government discovered long ago that it was wiser to dispense with bonds, and instead to rely upon speedy settlements with disbursing officers.

The campaign against Poverty goes on with vigor, Mr. George having dealt the enemy some heavy blows at the Academy of Music on Sunday evening, and Dr. McGlynn following up the attack at the Cooper Institute on Monday evening. The enemy showed signs of weakness at the Academy by contributing $500 to the attacking party. A portion of this was thrown on the stage from all parts of the house, very much as bouquets are thrown at popular singers. Now $500 is sufficient to start two or three families on the farms in the town of Ludlow, Vermont, that have been abandoned by their owners because they could not earn a living and pay the taxes on them. Since the campaign against Poverty has for its object the confiscation of land and the taxing of farms up to their full rental value, here is a good opportunity to show how the thing would work. Let the $500 be immediately applied to the seizure of these farms and to the purchase of ploughs, seeds, and domestic animals. If the Legislature of Vermont do not put the taxes on the land high enough to kill Poverty, Mr. George can go up there and deliver a lecture on the subject. This would be much more to the purpose than bragging how many votes he got for the office of Mayor last fall.

Another of the great "labor bills" has passed the New York Assembly. It makes ten hours a day's labor for the drivers of street cars. As the drivers are paid by the trip, and need not go on more trips than they choose, the object of the bill is simply to please Labor; but if Labor be pleased with it, Labor is sillier than its worst enemies suppose. If the friends of Labor in the Legislature could be induced to introduce, if not to pass, all possible labor bills at once, it would be a great saving of public time. Among those which have not as yet received attention would be one fixing the amount of money which each laborer should have in his pocket for incidental expenses. The most important of all is, however, the Labor Sleep Bill. The sleep of the laboring man has thus far been shamefully neglected by those who make our laws. Nobody in this State, not even the Labor Bureau, knows how much sleep Labor gets, or concerns himself in the least about it, although it is well settled that eight hours' sleep is each laborer's due. If he does not get it, it shows that there is something wrong in our Government. The Labor Sleep Bill will or ought to provide that each laborer shall have eight hours' sleep, either continuous or desultory, and shall stay in bed till he gets it, and that six Sleep Inspectors, with a salary of $5,000 each, shall be appointed to watch over the execution of the law, and provide for silence around the laborer's couch.

The letter written by the Rev. Dr. McGlynn to the *Times* denying the alleged interview in which he was represented as defining Archbishop Corrigan's politics in the last national election, contains two statements which possess considerable interest. One is that whereas he (Dr. McGlynn) was opposed to Mr. Blaine in the last election, he will be just as much opposed to him in the next one if he should be renominated. This declaration will sink very deep into the hearts of the Republican campaign managers in this State. The other pregnant sentence we quote in his own words:

"You ask, 'To whom did Dr. McGlynn allude when he spoke of the "precious gang" who were sending out "calumnies on this subject to clergymen all over the country?"' I meant by the 'precious gang' not any number of clergymen, whether bishops or priests, but a lot of political rascals who, as your quotation from my statement shows, had tried by unjustly exciting Catholic prejudice to defeat Gov. Robinson, and were repeating the same art to defeat Mr. Cleveland. A leader of this gang on both occasions, as I well knew, was Mr. Thomas F. Grady, who, I have reason to surmise, was the author of the circular against Mr. Cleveland sent to Catholic clergymen, for a clergyman had told me that Mr. Grady had shown him a copy of it in print that seemed to be a proof with Mr. Grady's manuscript corrections."

Mr. Grady was one of "the enemies he had made," whose hostility at the Chicago Convention contributed so much to Mr. Cleveland's nomination. It is well known that Grady's hostility followed Mr. Cleveland after his nomination with as great virulence as before. Inferences may be drawn from this respecting the late Mr. John Kelly, but it is perhaps best not to disturb his ashes.

The election of 1884 showed that Mugwumpism had gained at least a foothold in Wisconsin, Blaine's vote for President falling more than 2,000 short of Rusk's for Governor, and Cleveland's leading that of the Democratic candidate for Governor in the same proportion. Two years of a Democratic Administration have greatly strengthened the Independent feeling, and its importance is now fully recognized by the Republican managers. The Milwaukee *Sentinel*, the chief party organ, opposes the renomination of Blaine, and Senator Sawyer, the leading party manager, is out for Sherman as the candidate in 1888. The drift of sentiment is illustrated by the result of a canvass among thirty prominent Republicans of Oshkosh, which showed that Blaine was the first choice of only fourteen, and that a number of these doubt the advisability of nominating him for fear that he would be more badly beaten another time.

Some very interesting figures are published by the Providence *Journal* from advance sheets of the census of Rhode Island, which was taken in 1885 and is now in process of completion. These show that while there are nearly 86,000 men of voting age in the State, less than 46,000 are returned as qualified voters. This great discrepancy is not due, as might be supposed, solely to the discrimination which the State laws make against residents of foreign birth, for while about 54,000 of the 86,000 are native born, only about 41,000 of them are actual voters, the others, numbering over 12,000, having never taken the trouble to comply with the registration laws. The total number of foreign-born residents of voting age is nearly 32,000, and only about 5,000 of these are actual voters. Over 23,000 of them have never been naturalized, while over 3,400 who have been naturalized are not able to vote because not possessing the $134 worth of real estate required by law. If all the aliens were naturalized, and universal and unrestricted suffrage prevailed, the native-born voter would still outnumber the foreign-born by more than five to three.

The item of greatest interest in this showing is the presence in the State of over 12,000 native-born voters who have the right of suffrage, but who have not taken the trouble to exercise it. This is a much larger proportion—12,000 out of 46,000, more than one-fourth—than can be found in any other State. It is undoubtedly due to the long supremacy of the Republican party in the State, and to the registration laws which that party's managers concocted to enable them to continue in control. These laws require the payment of registration taxes a year or more in advance of election, with the express purpose of keeping the Democratic registration down. So long as there was no hope of success at the polls, the Democratic voters would not pay their own poll-taxes, and their managers would not go to the expense of paying them for them. Democratic success has changed this, and the next election is likely to show a great diminution in the number of stay-at home voters, and a large increase in the Democratic total, for it is reasonable to suppose that nearly all the 12,000 absentees are Democrats. What is true of Rhode Island is true in a wider sense of the whole country. The Democratic party will enter the next Presidential election with the prestige of success to help and encourage its apathetic voters for the first time in a quarter of a century, and the increase in its vote from this source alone will be an element of no slight importance in deciding the result.

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The last number of the New York *Lumber Trade Journal*—at the close of an article exhibiting some details of the business carried on by American capital in the manufacture and sale of Canadian forest products—asks whether we can afford to cut ourselves off from this source of supply in order that relatively unimportant fishing interests may be fostered? For the three years 1884-5-6, all but 2 per cent. of the total value of the exports from the Ottawa Consular District were forest products. Both in Quebec and Ontario, Americans have taken a leading part in developing this main resource of the country, and many of them have made large fortunes in the business. When it was believed that the Morrison Tariff Bill was likely to pass, much lumber was bought for shipment to the United States, one firm buying eighty million feet. Should non-intercourse be proclaimed, the American owners cannot get this property to market, and we shall not—in a season when all the signs indicate a short supply and high prices—enjoy the relief which this addition to our stock would give. The *Northwestern Lumberman* says that everything points to higher prices this season. At the Lumbermen's Convention, recently held at Minneapolis, the Secretary reported that there are a billion feet less of manufactured lumber in stock than a year ago, and that last winter's log crop is no larger than that of the winter of 1885-6. A correspondent of the same paper estimates that not less than 130,000,000 feet of timber will be required for culverts and bridges on new railroads built this season, and that an equal amount will be absorbed by the stations and villages along the lines. Nearly all the correspondents from prominent Eastern points say that the indications are that this season there will be more than the average amount of lumber absorbed in building. If under such circumstances we cut off all or the greater part of the material we might get from the Canadian forests, and have to show for it nothing but a higher price for all the fish we eat, it would seem a hard matter for the most inveterate protectionist to cipher out a profit.

Some time ago we published an outline of the Ohio Liquor-Tax Law, showing that the receipts from its successful working were paid into the county treasuries, and that each community was given the power to raise the tax to any limit it chose, or to prohibit liquor-selling altogether. We have now obtained, through the courtesy of its author, Mr. William W. Harper of Chicago, a copy of the Illinois law, in which the principle of each community receiving the full benefit of its own liquor tax is more specifically applied than it is in Ohio. The words of the law are that "it shall not be lawful for the corporated authorities of any city, town, or village in this State, to grant a license for the keeping of a dram-shop except upon the payment, in advance, into the treasury of the city, town, or village granting the license, such sum as may be determined by the respective authorities of such city, town, or village, not less than at the rate of $500 per annum." Each community is given the power to raise the tax to any limit it chooses, and so many communities have availed themselves of this to raise it to the prohibitory limit that, according to the Chicago *Tribune*, "prohibition has been so generally established by rural communities that it is now the rule over two-thirds of the soil of the State. In thirty or forty counties scarcely an open saloon exists."

The strict enforcement of the Sunday Liquor Law is an excellent thing as a lesson in politics both for the public and the police. It will do much to put a stop to what we may call bunkum legislation—that is, legislation intended to please good people and do bad people no harm, of which there is a great deal. Mayor Hewitt is proving beyond question that a really prohibitory Sunday law cannot be enforced—paradoxical as it sounds—by enforcing it. That is, by showing how much vigilance is needed to enforce it, and what violence rigid enforcement does to the habits of large bodies of decent men and women, he shows that permanent rigid enforcement is impossible. The police could not permanently supply the needed vigilance, and the people would not permanently furnish the amount of acquiescence and submission which is necessary to make even consummate vigilance effective. A few Sundays more of the same sort as the last will probably bring about a more practical state of mind about the liquor question in this city than we have had for many a day. The lesson of the experiment is that absolute legislation about liquor is out of the question—that is, legislation which treats all consumption of alcoholic drinks as a crime, either on one day or seven days of the week. In other words, we may and ought to regulate, but we cannot prohibit, and, therefore, ought not to try.

The new Governor of Washington Territory has had a chance to show what sort of man he is, and he stands the test well. A few days ago fresh trouble with the Chinese was threatened at Seattle, the worst elements of the white population having resolved to drive out the "barbarians." Governor Semple promptly telegraphed to the Commander of the Territorial Militia, ordering him to have his force in readiness to assist the authorities in maintaining the laws, and his manly stand at once restored order. The *Post-Intelligencer*, the leading newspaper of Seattle, "congratulates the Democratic party on producing a man of such metal, and the Territory upon the good fortune of having such a Governor to appeal to for direction when the honor of the Territory is imperilled." Such a tribute is the only commentary needed upon the recent diatribe against the President for his appointments in Washington Territory from Delegate Voorhees, a disappointed spoilsman.

The question whether the "fall in prices" that has been witnessed during the past fifteen or twenty years is due to a short supply of gold in the commercial world, or to improved means of production and transportation, has received a pretty thorough examination, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, at the hands of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin. With great volubility the bimetallists have advanced the idea of an insufficiency of gold to sustain prices, and have gained the adherence of some who are not bimetallists, notably Mr. Goschen, the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Giffen, the statistician of the British Board of Trade. The greatest service rendered by Prof. Laughlin in this discussion, as it seems to us, is to be found in the appendix to his article, in which he presents the various tables of prices that are relied upon by the bimetallists to establish their thesis that general prices have fallen. This is the foundation of their argument. If general prices have not fallen, the whole superstructure comes down. It is shown that there is a very wide disagreement both in the manner of constructing these tables and in the results reached by them. The differences are so glaring as to suggest the inquiry whether there is any such thing as "an average of general prices." Undoubtedly we may take a given number of articles, and find out whether a hundred dollars will buy more or less of a given number of pounds and yards of each of them than the same money would buy ten years ago. But if some articles have fallen and others have risen in price, this proves nothing. If, furthermore, the fall of some and the rise of others can be traced to causes other than the gold supply, then the labor spent in tabulating them has been wasted, for all purposes of argument upon the monetary question.

The tables oftenest quoted and most relied upon are those of the *Economist*, which have followed for a long series of years twenty-two articles, mostly raw materials, leaving out of view everything else that enters into human consumption and traffic. Three of these articles are cotton of different kinds. Of course two of them ought to be left out, and this correction would reduce the number of articles to twenty. Moreover, the *Economist* does not take into account the relative importance of articles, or the quantities that enter into ordinary consumption. Indigo, for instance, counts for as much as wheat in making up the average. Another authority in the manufacture of tabulated prices gives to wheat the power of 18 as against 1 for indigo, and the latter is much more philosophical in his treatment of the subject than the *Economist*. Again, the *Economist* deals only with British prices, leaving the rest of the world out of the reckoning. One of the tables given embraces a list of twenty-three articles of general consumption and traffic in the commercial world which have shown no tendency to fall in price. Among these are such staple commodities as beef, cheese, oats, brandy, and silk. As to those which have fallen, the greater part have been subjected to influences clearly definable, such as cheapened processes of manufacture and transportation, which account for their fall in price without the necessity of looking into the gold supply, or the book of fate, or a pack of cards to determine the causes of the phenomenon. These facts have been brought to the attention of Mr. Giffen and Mr. Goschen before, but they have observed a studied silence respecting them. Mr. Laughlin's presentation is rather more thorough than any former one, because he attacks the tables themselves and knocks their heads together most effectively.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 4, to TUESDAY, May 10, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE National Civil-Service Commissioners have submitted to the President amendments to the civil service rules, and he has approved them. They are almost as important as the original rules. The principle of competitive examination will now be applied to promotions in the executive departments, and ultimately in the Government service generally. On May 5 the annual meeting of the New York Civil-Service Reform Association was held in this city, and Mr. George William Curtis was reëlected President. The report of the Executive Committee expresses regret "that Mr. Hans S. Beattie continues to occupy the position of Surveyor at this port. Extensive information, constantly reaching us, shows that the system of administration pursued by him is seriously to the detriment of the public service, and that no proper conduct of the office is to be anticipated as long as he remains its incumbent."

The Inter-State Commerce Commissioners, having finished hearing petitions and explanations in the Southern cities, on April 5 separated for a few days and each went to his home. Commissioner Schoonmaker, to remove popular misapprehensions about the law and the functions of the Commission, said at Pittsburgh on the 7th: "It should be remembered that the business of the country is no longer in the hands of the railroads. The business men should remember that the new law is in the nature of an emancipation to them. On the other hand, the law is not a dictation against the railroads, but against the abuses on them. . . . I do not think the new law is injurious to the interests of the Pacific Slope. The greatest clamor heard of comes from California. There is nothing in the law to prevent any one in the East from making rates to the Pacific Coast, or the reverse, provided they do not ship to intermediate points at higher rates. The law was passed so as to help business and do away with abuses. Now it seems that there is a disposition on the part of some of the people to try and make capital out of the law itself in their pressing demands for special provisions." It is reported that much transcontinental traffic is going by the Canadian Pacific Road. A bill has been introduced in the Canadian Parliament embodying some of the provisions of the United States law. The most important provision is that no railroad company shall charge for carrying freight a short distance a greater rate than for carrying the same class of freight a longer distance. Complaint has been made to the Commission on behalf of the Rev. William H. Council of Huntsville, Ala., a colored Methodist preacher, who paid first-class fare, but was ejected from a regular coach. The Commission is asked to decide whether a discrimination on account of color by an inter-State road falls within the prohibition of the law.

Secretary Whitney has decided to order the repair of the United States steamer *Hartford* now at Mare Island, Cal. A sentimental interest is felt in this ship because it was Farragut's flagship.

The Kentucky Democratic Convention, at Louisville, on May 5, nominated Gen. S. B. Buckner for Governor, James W. Bryan for Lieutenant-Governor, P. W. Hardin for Attorney-General, Gen. Lafayette Hewitt for Auditor, and Richard Tate for Treasurer. A resolution was adopted full of praise of Mr. Cleveland's Administration, but the platform contains a warped plank about civil-service reform. Mr. Carlisle presided over the Convention.

Mr. Charles James Faulkner of Martinsburg was elected United States Senator from West Virginia on May 5, to succeed Mr. Camden. He is a son of the Charles James Faulkner who was appointed Minister to France by President Buchanan, and was arrested and imprisoned in 1861, charged with disloyalty to the Union.

The Connecticut House of Representatives passed a uniform high-license bill May 6, fixing the fees for a full license at $400 and the fee for beer license at $150.

The Committee of the New York Legislature which has been investigating the conduct of the officers of Brooklyn and Kings County has recommended in its majority report that a number of them be removed for corruption in office. The minority report declares that the charges are not proved by the evidence.

Gov. Hill of this State has approved the Saturday Half-Holiday Act, which will make Saturday afternoons, after May 20, legal holidays.

Gov. Hill has vetoed the bill passed by the New York Legislature providing for the election of members of a convention to change the State Constitution.

The Excise Law of New York, which prohibits even the serving of liquor by hotel proprietors to their guests on Sunday, had not been enforced in this city for a great many years, until last Sunday. It was the "dryest" day in New York that has come for a long time. Eighty-eight persons were arrested for selling liquor. It is the almost universal expectation that Mayor Hewitt's enforcement of this law will cause its modification, at least so as to make the serving of liquors at hotels lawful.

A call has been published for a State Convention of the United Labor Party in New York to nominate candidates for the next State election, and the Convention is to sit at Syracuse on August 17. One article of the creed which is printed with the call is, that taxes shall be levied only on land-values.

A party of about 100 Hungarian laborers have gone from the coke region near Connellsville, Pa., to Hungary to spend the five or six months during which they think their strike will last, because they can go and return and live cheaper during that time than by staying in Pennsylvania.

Paul Grottkau, the Anarchist, who made incendiary speeches in Milwaukee a year ago when there was a riot there, has been sentenced to one year at hard labor in the House of Correction.

At a meeting on May 5 of the Third Army Corps Union in this city, Gen. Sickles introduced a resolution, which was unanimously adopted, calling for a meeting of the officers and soldiers of the Army of the Potomac and of the Army of Northern Virginia (Confederate) on the battle-field at Gettysburg, on July 1, 2, and 3, 1888.

The grand jury at Haverhill, O., has found indictments for murder in the first degree against the four men named McCoy (one of them is a saloon-keeper), who killed Dr. Northrup because of his activity against liquor-selling. A murder for a similar cause is reported from Jackson, Miss. James S. Hamilton and three other men killed Roderick Gambrell, who was the editor of a temperance paper. The temperance people in Mississippi are greatly excited by the murder.

Two large manufacturers of barbed wire, Schnabel & Co. at Deering Station, and Sherman & Marsh, at Grand Crossing, Ill., have failed with liabilities amounting to $755,000. The Inter-State Commerce Act, which abolished rebates on heavy barbed-wire shipments and enabled other firms shipping by water to sell cheaper, is given as the chief cause of these failures.

In central, northern, and northwestern Texas there was a heavy rainfall May 9 and 10. This is the second rain since May 1. The crop prospect is greatly improved. There will be a largely increased acreage for cotton and corn.

Earthquake shocks were felt on May 3 and the day following from Texas to California and in Mexico. At Sabinal, N. M., which is one of the old settlements in the Southwest, many ancient adobe buildings were shaken down. At the town of Bahispe, in Sonora, Mex., an unverified report is that 150 persons were killed. Recent records of earthquake shocks show a general disturbance from one end of Mexico to the other. A subsequent shock was reported in the San José Mountains, forty miles south of Fort Huachuca, in Sonora. The regions of the greatest disturbance, both in Arizona and in Mexico, are so far from telegraph stations that the topographical changes made by the shocks are not yet known. Unverified reports of volcanic action have come from settlements near all the mountain ranges within the disturbed area.

At the one hundred and nineteenth annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York on May 5 a letter was read from M. Bartholdi, who, in the name of the French delegation which came here when the Statue of Liberty was set up, presented to the Chamber some Sèvres vases as an expression of thanks for the Chamber's hospitality.

The corporators of Clark University to be established at Worcester, Mass., met May 4 and elected the founder, Mr Jonas G. Clark, President, and ex-Attorney-General Charles Devens, Senator George F. Hoar, and ex-Congressman W. W. Rice Vice-Presidents. They will proceed at once to erect buildings so that the first class in the new university may be admitted on the first Monday in October, 1888. Mr. Clark announced his purpose to give another million dollars (he had already given $1,000,000), and expressed his wish that the institution be kept beyond the reach of partisan influence and sectarian bias, and that the courses of instruction should be made to embrace as wide a range as possible of theology, philosophy, science, literature, and art.

John Fitzgerald, President of the Irish National League of America, recently submitted the London *Times's* facsimile of the alleged Parnell letter, together with documents in the handwriting of Richard Pigott, formerly proprietor of the Dublin *Irishman*, who some time ago tried to blackmail officers of the League, to a committee, consisting of the Governor, the State Treasurer, and the State Auditor of Nebraska, and the Mayor, the Postmaster, and the cashiers of the banks at Lincoln. This committee has expressed the opinion that the Parnell signature was written by the same hand that wrote the blackmailing letters.

William O'Brien, the editor of the *United Ireland*, arrived in New York May 10 on his way to Canada to make an agitation against Lord Lansdowne for his treatment of the tenants on his Irish estates. He was enthusiastically received here by his political friends. A deputation of citizens waited on Mayor Howland of Toronto, May 10, and presented a requisition for a public meeting to consider the advisability of prohibiting Mr. O'Brien from speaking in that city. The Montreal *Gazette* on May 10 warned him that if he insults the Governor-General he does it at his own risk. It says: "The Governor-General stands to us in the place of the Queen. We are bound in honor to protect him against such insult—bound by the strongest of reasons—self-respect and national pride. To insult him is to insult not only the Queen's representative, but Canada and the people of Canada, whose Viceroy he is. Mr. O'Brien is assuming a very serious responsibility. As a landlord we have nothing to do with Lord Lansdowne. The people of Canada are not all Irish, and they have rights that should be respected. We greatly fear that if Mr. O'Brien persists, he will provoke feelings of a totally different order from those which, in his rash design, he contemplated."

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Queen Kapiolani of the Hawaiian Islands was entertained at dinner at Washington by the President, and has visited Boston, where she received attentions from the Mayor and many distinguished citizens.

Mr. W. C. Depauw, a plate-glass manufacturer of New Albany, Ind., and one of the richest men in the West, died at Indianapolis May 5, aged sixty-five. He had been generous to several educational institutions. Another man of means who used his riches generously to further educational work was Mr. Oliver Hoyt, who died from injuries got by a fall last week from his carriage. He did business in this city and lived at Stamford, Conn. Robert McKim, a rich banker and philanthropist of Madison, Ind., died May 9. He gave the money for the establishment of the McKim observatory of Depauw University.

Gen. Aaron Fletcher Stevens died at Nashua, N. H., May 10. He was a Brigadier-General of Volunteers in the Union Army.

FOREIGN

The House of Commons has occupied itself almost wholly for a week discussing the *Times*-Dillon incident. Mr. Gladstone's motion to appoint a committee to inquire into the *Times's* charges against Mr. Dillon was rejected by a vote of 317 to 233, and Sir Edward Clarke's motion that the House decline to treat the *Times's* publication as a breach of privilege was agreed to. Mr. W. H. Smith's proposition that the Attorney-General should prosecute the *Times* on behalf of Mr. Dillon has been hooted by the Liberal members. The ill-management of the Tories in this whole matter seems to have given the Parnellites the advantage, in spite of the denial of a committee of inquiry.

After the long delay caused by the discussion of the *Times*-Dillon incident, the House of Commons, May 9, again went into committee and took up the Irish Crimes Act. An amendment to the effect that magisterial inquiries into cases of alleged crime under the bill be conducted in public, was rejected by a vote of 188 to 131. Progress was made only by the application of the closure rule. A discredited report was published on May 10 that the Government will make an excuse to imprison all the Parnellite members, in order to hasten the progress of the Crimes Bill. On May 10 an amendment to the effect that a person committed for contempt of court be treated as a first-class misdemeanant was rejected, as well as another amendment to limit the penalty for contempt in the case of witnesses to seven days' imprisonment.

An informal meeting of the Cabinet was held on the same day to discuss plans for expediting the passage of the Coercion Bill. It was decided to abandon the attempt to effect a wholesale application of the closure rule at a fixed date. The Ministerialists think that the discussion on the Coercion Bill in committee will last three weeks longer.

Mr. Gladstone's having Mr. T. D. Sullivan, Lord Mayor of Dublin, Mr. Justin McCarthy, and other Irish politicians to dine with him May 7 is commented on as an evidence of the cementing influence on the Liberals and Parnellites of the *Times*-Dillon incident.

The Court of Queen's Bench at Dublin has decided that the arrest of Mr. Dillon by police inspectors for receiving money under the plan of campaign was lawful.

An application has been dismissed for the release of Father Keller, the priest of Youghal, who is imprisoned at Dublin for refusing to testify regarding his connection with the plan of campaign.

The coercionist cause has received a rebuff in Birmingham. In the newly elected Liberal Council a resolution was adopted condemning coercion, which was practically a vote of censure of Mr. Bright's conduct, who has unofficially expressed his willingness to resign.

It was first made known on May 6 that Sir Henry Holland, Secretary of State for the Colonies, announced in the Colonial Conference in London on April 27 that the Government hoped to arrange with France for a joint Naval Commission for the government of the New Hebrides. This statement amazed the members of the Conference, and all the Australians deprecated any policy which even seemed to recognize French pretensions in the New Hebrides. The Conference has approved the proposal to lay a cable between Vancouver and Australia, and expressed its favor of an extension of the Queen's present titles to "Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland, and the Colonies and all Dependencies thereof, and Empress of India."

A congress of English-speaking Roman Catholics will meet in London shortly, chiefly to discuss questions growing out of the labor agitation. Cardinal Manning is the leading spirit in the movement.

The American Exhibition in London was formally opened May 9 with an attendance of about 7,000 persons. "Buffalo Bill's" Wild West show proved to be the most attractive feature to a great many visitors.

James Grant, the English novelist, died May 6. Sir William Young, ex-Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, died at Halifax, May 8. On May 9 Samuel Cousins, the famous English engraver, died, aged eighty-six.

The performance of Wagner's "Lohengrin," at the Eden Theatre in Paris, was made the occasion of anti-German demonstrations by a mob. A crowd assembled near the theatre while the performance was going on and shouted "Down with Wagner!" "On to Berlin!" and similar cries. A number of youths were arrested, and other performances of Wagner's productions were postponed. On May 4, the mob marched to the residence of President Grévy and cried out against Germany. These incidents have excited little comment at Berlin. It was reported on May 7 that three German spies had been arrested near Nancy, and that the German Government had strengthened its detective force to watch suspected Frenchmen.

A bill drawn by Gen. Boulanger to provide for a mobilization of the French Army in the fall has provoked serious comment at Berlin.

The Leipsic Supreme Court has prepared an indictment against the persons arrested for connection with the case in which the French Commissary Schnaebelé was implicated. The indictment covers all the evidence in detail collected during several months, and it is said to be as much against France as against the prisoners.

The United States Treasury Agent sent to Aix-la-Chapelle to inquire into the causes of undervaluations of exports has been put to great annoyance, most of the manufacturers refusing to answer his questions. European prices are of little value for use in America, because all European countries make cheaper prices for exports to America than for goods to be sold in Europe, and the Germans alone cannot change the system.

The duty on imported cattle has been increased by Belgium. Its effect will be to increase the duty on all fresh meat from fifty to sixty per cent.; and it is predicted that it will cause great popular discontent, and it may bring about the defeat of the present Government at next year's elections.

Boissières Frères, ship-owners of Havre, have opened a semi-monthly service between that port and Montreal. Six vessels of 4,000 tons will be run.

The steamship *La Champagne*, from Havre to New York, on May 8 near the French coast came into collision with another steamship. In the panic that followed, several Italian emigrants were drowned. The steamer was badly damaged and was beached.

The Russian duty on iron and steel and on articles manufactured therefrom has been increased.

The Russian Ambassador to Berlin has presented to the Emperor an autograph letter from the Czar assuring him of Russia's continued friendship.

The Russian Government has prohibited the sale of a drama by Count Tolstoi entitled "The Powers of Darkness," which was written for general circulation.

The Pope and the Czar are negotiating through a noble Lombard monk with a view to the reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches. As the Pope is willing to let the Greek Church retain its own manner of worship, it is expected that the negotiations will be successful.

Troops have been sent to take position along the line of railway to be travelled by the Czar when he visits the Don Cossack capital, so that the entire route will be guarded. He has invited the King of Denmark, the King and Queen of Greece, the Queen of Servia, the Prince and Princess of Montenegro, and the Duchess of Edinburgh to be his guests on the journey. The Czarina has given 100,000 rubles to Gen. Gresser, Prefect of St. Petersburg, in recognition of his services in frustrating the recent plot against the Czar's life, and the Czar has granted him a pension of 6,000 rubles as a reward for his services in arresting Nihilists.

Herr Nordenfeldt has made arrangements to sign a contract with the Hungarian Government for the establishment of a factory at Pesth for the manufacture of small arms, and to guarantee the delivery of 400,000 rifles in two years.

A hot sirocco blew all last week through Hungary, parching vegetation and rendering it imflammable. At Toroczko 300 houses, many houses at the village of Meregyo, and all the churches and public buildings at Eperies, were burned. A number of people perished, and the loss of property is reported to be not less than $2,500,000. Emperor Francis Joseph has sent $5,000 for the relief of the victims of the fires.

In the Spanish Congress the question of home rule for Cuba has been formulated and discussed. A threat was made by home-rule members on May 10 that they would cause an agitation for annexation to America if their demands were not granted. It is reported that the Carlists are aiding the Home-Rulers to organize an outbreak.

The Spanish Government has authorized the formation of a coaling station on the Red Sea, with the idea of founding a settlement. The attention of several of the Powers has been attracted by this announcement. The Italian Government has asked Spain for an explanation, and it is reported that the site of the station had already been claimed by Italy.

Mr. Henry M. Stanley, with his expedition for the relief of Emin Bey, arrived at Bauza Mundeka, Congo, March 29. He took a route by way of Stanley Falls for Emin's camp.

The mineral exhibition which was to have been opened at Lima October 1, 1887, has been postponed until July 29, 1888, by the Peruvian Government, because the preparations cannot be finished this year.

On May 2 an explosion in a shaft of a coal mine at Nanaimo, B. C., entombed and caused the death of more than 125 miners. A large proportion of the families in the town lost their bread-winners. There was hope of rescuing some of the imprisoned men for several days, and during that period business was suspended and nearly the whole population assembled near the pit. The Canadian Government will be asked by the members from British Columbia for a grant towards relieving the wives and families of the killed.

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THE PACIFIC COAST AND THE COMMERCE ACT.

THE Sacramento *Record-Union* finds the Inter-State Commerce Act not only a bad kind of protective tariff, but extremely bad politics, so far as the Pacific Coast is concerned. "Protection of A in America," it says, "in his industry, as against the products of the industry of B in a foreign land, is one thing, but the protection of A in Ohio at the expense of B in California, both being citizens of a common country, with the right to trade freely between the States, is a very different thing. It means divorcement of sympathy, commercial estrangement, and possible political dismemberment." Possible political dismemberment is a pretty hard word. It is probably meant to be no more than indicative of a necessary weakening of political ties when any section of the people think that their pecuniary interests have been unjustly sacrificed, or their rights wantonly trampled upon.

Looking at the state of things created on the Pacific Coast by the multiplication of transcontinental lines of railway, and the competition among them for through traffic, we do not see how the long-and-short-haul clause of the Commerce Act can possibly be maintained as to that coast. It must be remembered that we have to deal not with the California that the miners made, but with one that we have made; not with Pacific Coast industries as they existed prior to 1869, when commerce and production conformed to the ancient lines of traffic via Cape Horn and Panama, but with one altogether different. We have put a lot of forces in train which have transformed the face of the country and changed all the currents of life. We have induced, nay required, the people of the Pacific Coast to build the fabric of their industry over in order to fit it to speedy communication with the older parts of the country, and at very low cost. Now we enact a law to deprive them of the low rates of transportation which form an integral part of their business, and which they enjoy by virtue of natural causes, and without harm to anybody else. Can we wonder if intense dissatisfaction is the result?

Attention has been drawn to the absurdity of the long-and-short-haul clause of the Commerce Act by the new schedules of rates adopted by the Canadian Pacific Railway. These rates are fixed just low enough to take the business, but are in every case higher than the rates prevailing before the Commerce Act went into effect. It is true that the Commissioners have suspended the operation of the act temporarily, but the apprehension that it may come in force again has led to the making of time contracts, by virtue of which large shipments are now making over the Canadian road at equal rates with those offered by our own lines. But there are certain kinds of freight, as, for instance, fresh fruits, that cannot be carried so great a distance without spoiling. These require the most rapid means of transit, without which, indeed, the industry must come to an end. In California and Oregon this is a great branch of industry, and no other is growing more rapidly.

Now, the spectacle offered to the eye of the business man—and most Americans are men of business — of the traffic of the Pacific Coast going around through a foreign country in order to reach American markets, and paying at the same time higher rates of transportation than our own railroads would be glad to make, is too absurd to hold the stage very long. We might, through a stern sense of duty, like that of Abraham offering up his young son Isaac, sacrifice the California fruit trade outright, but to see our business carried off by the Canadians over a longer line than any of our own, and at greater cost, will move the national sense of humor to a degree. What has happened in this particular is exactly what ought to have been expected. The Canadian Pacific has one terminus on Puget Sound and another on Lake Superior. It stretches practically from all points on the Pacific to all points on the lakes. A little more coal is required to get the goods to and from its terminus than on our own lines, but on the other hand it costs a great deal to keep hands and machinery idle. The Canadian road can afford to burn a little more coal at the two ends of its route in order to keep itself fully employed along its whole course. It was just as certain that the Commerce Act would cause the result now witnessed, *i. e.*, the transfer of American traffic to the Canadian Pacific Railroad at higher rates than those heretofore prevailing, as that a stone thrown upward will come down. If Mr. Reagan or any other Congressman fancied that merchants would, on grounds of patriotism, pay two dollars for an article that could be had for one, he is probably now undeceived.

The Commerce Act allows the Commissioners to suspend the operation of the long-and-short-haul clause in any particular case. They have suspended it as to the transcontinental lines for a period of seventy-five days. They will have to suspend it again at the expiration of that time, and they might better suspend it altogether than do it piecemeal, since shippers will naturally prefer a route which they can depend upon, rather than one which may be closed to them at the end of a few weeks.

THE COMPOSITION OF THE TRADES-UNIONS.

WE gave some account, a short time ago, of the diverting performances of the Illinois Bureau of "Labor Statistics," as set out in its Report for 1886. The volume is full of entertaining matter, though intended by its authors to produce nothing but serious reflection. The figures collected by Commissioners in the state of mind in which the report indicates these gentlemen to have been when preparing their work, are not likely to be very reliable; but on some points which they approach without any theory in their heads, they probably have come as near accuracy as anybody could. The result of their inquiries into the nationality of the members of the trades-unions, and into that of the Knights of Labor, is especially interesting, as throwing some light on a question which has both social and political importance, and which a great many people have been asking with some anxiety during the late labor troubles—namely, the extent to which native-born Americans are wrestling with the labor problem by means of strikes and boycotts.

According to the Report, there are in Illinois 54,247 members of trades-unions. Of these, 21 per cent. are Americans, 33 per cent. Germans, 19 per cent. Irish; English and Scotch together, 10 per cent.; Scandinavians, 12 per cent., and Poles, Bohemians, and Italians, about 5 per cent. The Americans are mostly found in the railroad service, in the cigar manufacture, in the iron-moulding and gas and steam-fitting trades. The Germans are mostly bakers, brewers, bricklayers, masons, carpenters, cabinet-makers, coopers, furriers, harness-makers, metal-workers, and wagon-makers. Curiously enough, however, hardly any of them are found among the sailors on the lakes. The Irish abound in the railroad service, especially the freight-handling, and among the bricklayers, stone-masons, plasterers, butchers, seamen, salt-workers, and printers, but make no great figure as hod-carriers; the Germans strange to say, having secured the lion's share of that calling. The Scandinavians, as might be expected, furnish most of the sailors on the lakes; "the hollow oak" is still their favorite abode.

The Report finds a very platitudinous but probably correct explanation of the paucity of the Americans in the trades in the disinclination of the American to settle down for life in any one calling, and in his strong desire to escape at the first moment from all manual labor properly so called, and engage in clerical work or "trading," in which, partly through education and partly through inherited quick-wittedness, he has a decided advantage over foreigners. He has, too, they might have added, a decided reluctance to engage in prolonged disputes, like strikes, over any business matter. His disposition is to drop quickly what does not seem likely to turn out profitable, and try something else—a trait which the directors of fraudulent banks and railroads find to their advantage, because it prevents the embittered legal pursuit to which they are sometimes exposed in England. The American stockholder, when he finds himself duped or betrayed, always prefers "selling out" to fighting. The American mechanic exhibits the same peculiarity. He does not care for an occupation in which he has to keep striking to get his due.

The fact which the Illinois Report brings out, however, that the Americans constitute 45 per cent. of the members of that more miscellaneous body, the Knights of Labor, of whom there are 33,544 in Illinois, is probably correctly explained by the Report in saying that, "though the order is really composed in the main of working people who have a common interest in maintaining wages, the more universal bond is doubtless the promotion of certain measures of public policy upon which men may readily unite who would have no status in a mere trades-union." The notion that wage-earners "have a common interest in maintaining wages," is of course as absurd as are a great many of the Commissioners' notions. It cannot be each man's interest that every other man should be highly paid. They might as well say that all consumers had a common interest in keeping up prices. But it is doubtless true that a large proportion of the Ameri-

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can Knights look on the organization as something in the nature of a political party like the Grangers. We saw something of the same kind in this city last fall, when thousands undoubtedly voted for Henry George who had no sympathy with his land theories, for the simple purpose, as they thought, of protesting against "Machine rule" and breaking it up.

"THE RULE OF HONOR."

A LETTER from an "Anti-Gladstoneite" Englishman, in the *Evening Post* of Saturday, is interesting in many ways, but principally as an illustration of the queer twist, as we consider it, which the anti-Gladstoneite mind in England has undergone, through its excitement over the Irish question, and on which (as illustrated in the case of Lord Hartington) Mr. Gladstone, in his speech before the Eighty Club, commented with much severity Lord Hartington, who throughout this crisis has been posing, in the eyes both of friends and foes, as a model English gentleman, has accepted two current Tory assumptions. One is, that all charges printed in the *Times* have to be treated with respect, because of the generally high character of the paper and large amount of capital dependent on its maintaining this character. The other is, that an offer to prove it in a court of law, and a refusal to produce proof of it anywhere else, is all that can be asked of an honorable man who makes a charge against private character.

The demand made on behalf of the *Times* we shall not discuss. It will be received with a smile everywhere out of England, and everywhere in England outside anti-Gladstonean circles. The *Times* is a very respectable newspaper, but the reverence of Englishmen for it is one of the amusing local superstitions. It would be more amusing if it were not that it is part and parcel of the glamour which surrounds anonymous journalism in all countries where it exists. The truth is, and it is a truth which is very clear when stated, that the *Times* is just as honorable and as wise as the editor, a young gentleman named Buckle, until a year or two ago quite obscure, and as the chief proprietor, an elderly gentleman named Walter, neither of them in any way elevated above the rest of the community in character or talents. If the claims made for the *Times* on the trust and confidence of the community, when making passionate attacks on the private character of political opponents, were made in behalf of Messrs. Buckle and Walter, as they ought to be, they would convulse people with laughter.

But this opens a field of discussion on which we do not propose to enter now. What most interests us is the notion, that the offer of Messrs. Buckle and Walter to prove the authenticity of the Parnell letter in a court of law is the only offer they are bound to make, and justly leaves Parnell, pending its acceptance, under suspicion. This, we say, is a complete reversal of the rule of honor, in fact a complete novelty in the ethics of gentlemen, as Mr. Gladstone intimated in the speech to which we have already referred. It is a notion which probably has grown out of the importance attached in most disputes about property or crime to what is called "legal evidence," and which, in Anglo-Saxon countries, lawyers are apt to talk of, and laymen to accept, as if it were the only evidence with which the human mind is competent to deal. The truth is, that it is not evidence at all in the full logical sense; or rather it is evidence which in Anglo-Saxon countries is greatly restricted in order to adapt it to the capacity of jurors. The law of evidence is mainly a body of rules intended to prevent certain facts from getting before juries which they would not be competent to weigh, and the judge is charged with the enforcement of these rules. Hence great importance has come to be attached by lawyers, and people who live much with lawyers, to evidence being "legal" in order to give it value. Many of them have recently held that even a legislative inquiry, such as that which took place in the matter of the Aldermanic "boodle," should only have been pursued through "legal evidence," as if the affairs of life, either in politics or business, could possibly be carried on without constant disregard of the rules of legal evidence by everybody who attempts to make any plan for the future, or form a working judgment about either persons or things.

The respect for "legal evidence" leads naturally enough to the idea that a court of law is the only place in which a charge can be examined, and its truth or falsehood ascertained. The truth is, however, that a jury is really, as everybody knows, everywhere an indifferent tribunal for the investigation of any charge against character. But a trial at law gives both of the parties the power to compel the attendance of witnesses and the production of documents, and gives the proceeding the superintendence of a judge, which makes it, especially for all complicated transactions requiring a great deal of proof, in a large number of cases the best available method of investigation. There would, for instance, probably be no better way of examining the charges made by the *Times*, in the articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," against the whole Irish party, than through the Select Committee of the House of Commons, which has been refused, although the charges have been steadily used by the majority in debate to discredit the Irish members.

But the Parnell letter is a different matter. Here the question is simply whether a signature of Parnell's is genuine or not. The body of the letter is not in his handwriting. In the intercourse of all honorable men in civilized countries, a man's repudiation of a signature imposes on the person who offers it as proof against him, the burden of at once giving his reasons for believing it to be genuine. If the accuser says he will not produce them now, but next spring, or next fall, and in the meantime continues to use the signature for the detriment of the alleged signer, he is among gentlemen all over the world, so far as we know, considered a scoundrel. This is, in fact, the reproach to which Messrs. Buckle and Walter lay themselves open. Their offer to produce their proofs in a court of law if Parnell will bring a suit, is an offer to produce them next autumn or next spring on the expenditure by Parnell of some thousands of pounds. No such suit as is proposed could be tried before next November at the earliest. It would probably not be tried before next February or March. In the meantime the imputation on Parnell's character as a man and a politician would have done its work. Suppose A were a candidate for a place of honor and profit, and the appointment was to be made in July, and B, a rival or enemy, were to produce a letter with a signature resembling his, revealing complicity in a disgraceful transaction, and the candidate repudiated it, what would be said in any company of gentlemen to the holder of the letter who answered, "How this letter came into my hands, to whom I suppose it to have been addressed, and what are my reasons for thinking A wrote it, or for disbelieving his denial, I decline to state. He can sue me if he pleases, and then I will tell all, some time next winter. In the meantime I will act and talk precisely as if he had acknowledged it to be his—that is, as if the very highest proof of its genuineness were in the possession of the public"?

We venture to say that few, if any, men living in decent social circles ever had an experience of this kind, except with a blackmailer or confidence man. Most men who had such an experience would, if in good health, at first blush be disposed to treat the case with a cudgel—all the sooner if B cried out that he knew the letter was genuine because the writer was such a bad man. The whole affair of the Parnell letter is, in fact, as disgraceful an incident as has ever occurred in English politics—as disgraceful to "journalism" as to society.

QUESTIONS FOR THE JUBILEE.

LONDON, April 21, 1887.

AT the centre of that curious fabric of laws, customs, and institutions which we call the English Constitution lies a mystery. The unknown element of political life in England is the Crown. Parliament, as Bagehot has pointed out, has inquired into many things, but no committee has ever sat, or, while the Constitution lasts, will sit, to inquire into the conduct of the Queen. To an English monarch is ascribed by law not only real irresponsibility, but fictitious sovereignty. One result of this has been little noted. As every act of state is done in the royal name, and as in many acts of state the Queen has no more personal concern than has, say, the Archbishop of Canterbury, no one really knows what, if any, are the matters really determined more or less in accordance with the royal will. Hence, no one, except a few statesmen who know the innermost life of the court or the best-kept secrets of the Cabinet, can with any certainty determine what have been the acts, the feelings, or the influence of the lady who has nominally ruled England for half a century. But if you do not know a person's actions or sentiments, you do not know his character. The veil which shrouds the official life of the Queen has also, in spite of the self-revelations afforded by her books, also concealed from public view much of her own personality.

At some future day Victoria will, no doubt, be as well known to historians as is George III. But, for the moment, she is less fully known to her subjects than any other person who has played a part on the stage of political life. Of her conduct and wishes there are and always have been rumors. Hints are dropped that she likes one Premier or dislikes another. It is whispered that her personal intervention facilitated the passage of the last Reform Act, and it is hinted that she

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favored a policy which was near bringing England to a war with Russia. But to outsiders like myself—and almost every Englishman is an outsider as regards secrets of state—these reports remain rumors and nothing more. They may rest on the highest authority, but the "highest authority" is a personage on whose word no man of sense would risk a penny. The apparent publicity of political life in England makes us forget the reserve maintained by statesmen of all parties with regard to the mysteries of the Cabinet, and no Cabinet secret is so sacred as secrets affecting the Queen.

Hence, when England is just about to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession, there are a host of questions about the Queen to which intelligent curiosity would desire an answer, but which hardly admit of a satisfactory or certain reply. Three of these inquiries occur to me as worth a few minutes' consideration. Is the Queen popular? What, to judge from history, has been her capacity as a ruler? What influence has her character had on the constitutional history of England?

The popularity of the Queen is, of course, in one sense past a doubt. To whatever part of Great Britain she goes, she is certain of a warm welcome from her subjects. Were she to visit the colonies she would be received with enthusiasm, and (though your readers are on this point far better judges than I) her appearance in the United States would, I conjecture, be welcomed with rapture by all classes of Americans except your Irish citizens. Nor is this personal popularity to be deemed a small thing. It is the result of a life which has, in the eyes of the English people on both sides the Atlantic, been felt to be entitled to respect. Since the death of Queen Anne no occupant of the English throne has commanded as widespread respect among the English people. William IV. was for a short time the "patriot King," but for that brief period he was the hero of a party, and when he ceased to be applauded as a reformer he did not gain any wide esteem with the nation. Of George IV. there is no need to say anything. His father, no doubt, commanded a kind of influence which has never fallen to Queen Victoria. The "good old King" was a real power, but by a large party he was at all times hated. His two predecessors were to the English people unattractive foreigners. Flattery itself would have hesitated to call them popular, lest servility should be mistaken for irony. But when one has allowed to the full for the importance and rarity of general esteem gained by the display of private virtues, the inquiry still remains, whether the Queen is popular in the sense in which a ruler is so called whose wishes have, because they are his wishes, weight with his people.

Would it, for instance, affect the public fortunes of a statesman that he was supposed to have spoken disrespectfully of the Queen? Would the public knowledge of the Queen's personally favoring or opposing the cause of home rule greatly strengthen the hands, as the case might be, of Mr. Gladstone or of Lord Salisbury? The more carefully a critic meditates upon the uncertainties of public opinion, the more doubtful will be his answer to these inquiries. In matters which touch the Queen personally, large classes would, it may be suspected, feel that her wishes ought to command deference. What might be her influence on the results of a doubtful political contest, no man would venture to predict. We here approach a subject to which the attention of your readers has more than once been called in your columns. If Englishmen are in the dark about the character of their nominal sovereign, they are equally in the dark about the character of their real sovereign, namely, the mass of the electors of Great Britain and Ireland. What do the artisans, what do the agricultural laborers, think about the Crown? Are they irritated by the expensiveness of a court, or do they, as Mr. Bagehot seems to have suspected, admire the showy parts of the Constitution? At the present moment, the question has a purely speculative interest. It may within half a century become of pressing importance. Government by Parliament does not fascinate popular imagination as much as it did when Parliamentary government (which is rather a different thing from government by Parliament) was longed for by all Continental Europe as an escape from all the evils of despotism. And it is at least conceivable that in England a king might at times represent the feeling of the electors better than a House of Commons distracted and weakened by the rivalry of parties which, like the groups in the French Chamber of Deputies, seem each to be just strong enough to prevent the creation of a permanent Government, with power to carry on the affairs of the nation with dignity and consistency. It is pretty clear that, during the reign of Queen Victoria, the problem as to the possible influence of the Crown will, happily for the nation, remain a purely academic inquiry. But whoever could fathom the true sentiment about the Queen now prevailing among the mass of the people, would possess a clue to guide him towards the path which English politics will pursue under her successors.

If any one ask of any ordinary Englishman what has been the Queen's capacity as a ruler, he would probably receive the reply that she has fully performed the duties of a constitutional sovereign. This answer is true enough in itself, but most of the persons who use the well-known formula that the Queen fulfils the duties of a constitutional monarch, hardly realize to themselves exactly what the formula means in the mouth of a modern Englishman. Its real significance is, that the Queen, in the opinion of the speaker, has conformed loyally to the advice of ministers, or, in other words, has shown herself at all times prepared, irrespective of her private feelings, to carry out the policy suggested by the men who had most influence in the House of Commons. How far this has really been the case no one, as I have already pointed out, can know for certain; but, assuming that the general estimate of the Queen's conduct is sound, it implies rather more than people generally realize as to her capacity. It shows that, unless she be endowed with a kind of self-control which is of itself a most rare quality, she must have been a person not very keenly interested in the great party questions of the day. It implies, also, a capacity for acquiescence almost inconsistent with moral or intellectual originality or resource. Englishmen have now made the discovery, when it is too late to be of much practical use, that, had the Queen resided half as much in Ireland as she has lived in Scotland, she might have conferred a great benefit on the nation. This idea, which has dawned on Englishmen with characteristic slowness, was grasped more than sixty years ago by that clever voluptuary George IV. It is difficult to suppose that Her Majesty resisted ministerial suggestions that she should visit Ireland; but it is not unfair to infer, from her own course of action, that she did not perceive the importance of making royalty at least popular with the Irish people. In other words, she has not shown in this matter either acuteness or the possession of what may be called individual initiative. But, though a capacity for acquiescence which must have greatly facilitated the performance of many constitutional duties, is almost inconsistent with high talent, the discharge for fifty years, amid general approval, of the functions allotted to a constitutional ruler proves the possession by the Queen of a great deal more of character and judgment than falls in general to the lot of hereditary monarchs. When matters go smoothly, everybody assumes that it is easy to preserve habitual smoothness. But the old saying that, though there is but one way of doing a thing rightly, the ways of doing a thing wrongly are infinite in number, has a very wide application. The Queen has avoided mistakes, and to have avoided mistakes—that is, to have done the right thing at the right moment—is itself a sign of a very special talent. In one matter, moreover, and in one only, Queen Victoria has displayed originality. She has come forward as the exponent of that sympathy with misery and pity for calamity which is the marked moral characteristic of the age. The letters in which the Queen has expressed her sympathy with persons whose calamities have attracted public notice, have probably done more to spread the legitimate popularity of the Crown than any other act for which she can be called personally responsible.

From no monarch who has sat on the English throne does the Queen differ more essentially than from each of the two women with whom her name is most naturally associated. Yet it is, I think, something more than a fancy that Queen Elizabeth, Queen Anne, and Queen Victoria will each be judged by historians to have rendered, in very different degrees and by very different methods, one and the same service to England. They each have facilitated the passage of the country through a difficult period of transition. The truth of this remark in the case of Elizabeth is certain. When she began her reign, the forces of Protestantism and Catholicism were nearly balanced; when she died, the contest between the two was ended. The singular compromise between the two contending powers embodied in Anglicanism was too firmly established to be in the long run overthrown either by the Papacy or by the Puritans. Queen Anne presided over the transition from a monarchical to a constitutional system of government. The presence of a Stuart on the throne suspended the activity of the Jacobites, and smoothed over the difficulties which might well have hindered the union with Scotland. Queen Victoria ascended the throne within a few years after the Reform Act had undermined the aristocratic system of government without establishing a democratic constitution. Each year which has since then elapsed has brought us nearer and nearer to a pure democracy. The transformation from aristocracy to democracy is now all but complete. That it has been accomplished peaceably, by degrees—almost, one may say, imperceptibly—is certainly due in a measure to the fact that the transition has taken place when, by the good fortune of England, we have had on the throne, not a king in whom acquiescence might have seemed wanting in dignity, but a Queen who could let the powers of the Crown be lessened or effaced without sacrificing any claim to respect. AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE LOUISIANA LOTTERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of the 28th of April, you indicted the whole people of Louisiana, and there are two counts in your indictment:

(1.) The large number of saloons alleged by the Prohibitionists, who will not help the temperate and sensible people to pass the high-license law.

(2.) The Louisiana Lottery reëstablished by the Constitution of 1879.

Will you permit me to place the responsibility for the lottery where it belongs, and that is, on the Republican party? The Constitution of

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Louisiana of 1845, article 116, and that of 1852, article 113, prohibited lotteries and buying and selling lottery tickets, and from 1845 to 1864 it was a criminal offence in Louisiana to draw a lottery or to buy or sell a lottery ticket. When Gen. Sheridan, with the aid of his Federal soldiers, forced on the people of Louisiana, under the Reconstruction Act of the Republican Congress, the Constitution of 1868 and the Warmoth government, this prohibition was repealed, and among the first acts passed by the Republican Legislature, elected and held in power by Federal bayonets, was an act to incorporate the Louisiana Lottery Company for twenty-five years. During the whole term of Republican rule in Louisiana, from 1868 to 1877, the will of the people of Louisiana was suppressed by the United States Army, which was sustained in its action by the Republican party of the nation, and no effort was made to repeal this charter.

A Democratic Legislature in 1879, Act 44, repealed the charter of the lottery company, and made it a penal offence to buy or sell lottery tickets in this State. The same Legislature called a constitutional convention. The Hon. Edward C. Billings (a New England Republican, a graduate of Harvard, appointed United States Judge by President Grant), on a bill in equity filed by the Louisiana Lottery Company, held that the charter of the lottery company was a contract between it and the State, and the act of 1879, repealing the charter and making it a crime to buy or sell lottery tickets, was in derogation of the Federal Constitution and void; and he enjoined the sheriff, the police, and all State officers from enforcing in any way this criminal statute of the State against the Louisiana Lottery Company or its servants and agents (see 3d Wood's Reports, page 222).

Many people were thus made to believe that the Federal power in the hands of the Republican party would maintain the lottery company in spite of the State law abolishing it. While the injunction was in force, the Constitutional Convention assembled with about 132 members, of which 30 were Republicans. When the lottery article was before the Convention, on a motion to strike it out the votes stood 59 to 59, absent 14. Every Republican voted against the motion to strike out except one, who was absent, and he, on the last and final vote for its adoption, was present and voted for it. On the third and last vote to adopt this lottery article, which reëstablished the Louisiana State Lottery as a contract granted in 1868 and prohibits all lotteries after 1895, the vote recorded 71 ayes, among whom was every Republican except two, and they were absent, and every man of the 52 who voted against the article was a Democrat without exception. An effort was made to allow the people to take a separate vote on this lottery article, and that was likewise defeated by Republican votes. If, therefore, the Republicans had been equally divided, or nearly equally divided, on the lottery article, it would have been defeated. A large majority of the Democratic members of the Convention invariably voted against it.

One clause of the charter of the lottery company, which exempted it from State and municipal taxation, has been recently upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States as a contract, the obligation of which cannot be impaired by the State. (See New Orleans vs. Houston, 119th United States Reports, 265, decided 6th of December, 1886.)

Under these circumstances, I submit that neither the present State Administration nor the people of Louisiana can justly be held responsible for the existence of the lottery.—Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

B. R. Forman.

New Orleans, May 3, 1887.

THE COLOR LINE IN MISSISSIPPI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a Mississippi court now in session, a negro teacher was indicted for obtaining money on false pretences, viz., reporting more pupils and more teaching days than he had a right to do. The counsel for the defence was a negro; opposing counsel and *all the jury* were white. *The negro won his case.*

That same negro lawyer had a case to-day with a white lawyer as associate counsel.

What a pity, for the negro's sake, that Cleveland was elected! Æ.

THE KENTUCKY STATE CONVENTION AND THE PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Kentucky State Convention which has just met is perhaps deserving of some notice, as being the first of a series which will take place before the next national Convention. It is interesting, not from any doubt which hangs over the result, but as expressing with tolerable clearness the attitude of Kentucky Democrats towards the altered conditions of public affairs. In a State as completely withdrawn from the influence of new, elevating ideas as Kentucky undoubtedly is, in a State in which the voice of the younger generation is either silent or lost in the ancient Bourbon chorus, it is curious to note that men still realize, however vaguely, the advent of a new order of things. The interest in the Kentucky Convention, in a word, revolves around its attitude toward the President.

I think I do not overstate the case when I say that no man of eminence in Kentucky has committed himself unequivocally to the Mugwump idea in politics; and in saying this I do not except even Mr. Carlisle, who has, as far as I know, never announced his position on the matter in perfectly unambiguous language. On the contrary, our Congressmen and Senators are notoriously opposed to it. Kentucky is perhaps not wholly to blame for this; its teachers have treated it very ill, the teachers from whom it deserved better things. The mossback reigns in unquestioned supremacy, and the *Courier-Journal* is the accepted idol of the large mass of the Democratic party. Let us give the devil his due: it has vigorously applauded the firm stand of the President against paternal government; his pension veto; his tariff-reform utterances. But, on the other hand, it is besmirched with the taint of every corrupt monopoly in the State, and has disseminated an idea which has done more to brutalize politics and repel the intelligence of the country than any other agency that could be named. It has maligned and maliciously misrepresented the whole civil-service-reform idea; it has congratulated us on every bad appointment the President has made, provided only a Republican gave way to a Democrat; it has insidiously striven to undermine the President, while conscious of atmospheric indications that point to his renomination; and, finally, it keeps at Washington a correspondent who worships at the shrine of the immaculate Higgins, and snarls at the President like an enraged and disappointed cur.

And the platform of the Convention reflects just this state of things. Its endorsement of the President ignores the cardinal feature of his policy; its civil-service declaration is as absurd as ingenuity could make it. And yet, after all—and this is the thing to which I wish particularly to call your attention—the omen is good when a Kentucky politician who still glories in the music of the words "Jeffersonian" and "Jacksonian," realizes that the President, despite the slight resemblance he bears to those now largely mythical heroes, must be renominated. This was clearly the sense of the Convention. They may agree with him or not; they may understand him or not; but they recognize and admit his strength, notwithstanding the fact that it is hard to make his actions harmonize with their traditional notions of a real Democratic President. This recognition strikes me as extremely important; it is, we sincerely hope, the first step towards the comprehension and absorption of his ideas.

A.

Louisville, Ky., May 7, 1887.

WOLSELEY AND LEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Notwithstanding the comparison suggested between Wolseley and Boulanger, I do not believe that Gen. Walker would maintain that the English soldier whose high reputation and position have been solely the result of professional success, was to be compared with the military politician who has leaped into notoriety by means of the French War Office.

It is hard to differ from so able and courteous an opponent as Gen. Walker, but we should probably not fully agree as to the condition of McClellan's army at Westover, or as to that of Burnside at Fredericksburg, however much we might discuss the question. In his last letter Gen. Walker supports his view of the case by disparaging the testimony of men eminent in the civil and military history of the United States, whose statements were not "opinions," but descriptions of facts by eye-witnesses, or derived from such.

But the point is not there. Lord Wolseley, in an article devoted mainly to other matters, in speaking of the imperfect organization of the American armies and their untrained staffs, referred to Westover and Fredericksburg as instances where these faults prevented Lee from obtaining the full fruits of his success. Lord Wolseley's estimate of the situation is pretty much the same as that, say, of Gen. Hooker in the one case, and of, say, Gen. Palfrey in the other. Gen. Walker takes a different view, and thinks Lord Wolseley wrong. Not only so, but he thinks Wolseley has blundered so inexcusably in following such guides that he speaks of his article as trash unworthy of any one above the grade of subaltern, and of his military criticisms as silly, empty, and vain.

Now, the point Lord Wolseley is illustrating—viz., the defects in organization and especially in the staff service of the armies of both North and South—is one upon which Gen. Walker probably does not differ very widely from Lord Wolseley. These defects were the natural result of the lack of military training among our people. West Point and the other military schools could supply but a small part of the training and experience needed for the thorough management of large armies suddenly called into existence. The remainder had to be got by actual practice in the field. Our armies were therefore very deficient in some respects at first, but improved as the war went on. I entirely agree with Gen. Walker that the former soldiers of both armies should resent unworthy imputations upon the "valor, discipline, and endurance of American soldiers, North and South," but it does not seem to me that Lord Wolseley has made such an imputation. At the first battle of Manassas the ammunition for some Confederate batteries had, in the absence of caissons, to be carried on common farm wagons. I should not think a reference to this clumsy makeshift a reflection upon the Confederate Ordnance Department, nor does the statement of the fact that both sides often suffered during the war from the inexperience of an untrained staff seem to me a disparagement of either of the contending armies.

A word to your Chicago correspondent. I re

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gret that I should have done anything to "irritate" a gentleman who informs us that he has become a "sincere admirer and warm friend of the people of the South," but I submit that "E. O.'s" irritation proceeds from some confusion of ideas or of dates. Both "E. O." and myself are now citizens of the United States, and have one country, but it was not so twenty-five years ago. After the beginning of the civil war, Gen. Lee's country was the Confederate States; and when the war ended, he had until his death no other *status* than that of a Confederate prisoner of war on parole. We doubt whether at that time "E. O." considered Gen. Lee his countryman. In discussing Lee's career during the war, it is proper, therefore, to speak of the South as his country, and of ex-Confederates as his countrymen, in a sense very different from any in which these terms could be used of the whole Union. The connection in which these expressions occur in my letter might have shown "E. O," the indelicacy, if not impropriety, of giving them a wider meaning. I have no doubt that many Americans in the North are "proud of Gen. Lee's splendid talents and still more splendid virtues," but I do not believe that the North is willing to adopt Wolseley's estimate of Lee, or that it will do so during this generation. It would, therefore, have been improper to have extended to the whole country a statement which is true enough of the South—even if by so doing one might have avoided irritating "E. O." W. ALLAN.

McDONOGH, MD., May 4, 1887.

COEDUCATION.—A STRAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The friends of collegiate coeducation have never claimed, we believe, that it is the best method of education for all women, or that it is yet an ideal system. They *have* asserted that it has its place as well as the separate college for women, and that, as the majority of these latter colleges have been carried on, the tendency of coeducation has been to make women, not of necessity better, but more scholarly. It is at least a significant fact that since the opening of Bryn Mawr College two years ago, the twelve fellowships that have been awarded have without exception been given to graduates of coeducational colleges. It would seem to indicate that until a recent period it has been difficult for a woman to gain as thorough training in a separate college as in one established exclusively for men, and that therefore the urgent petitions of women that the doors of men's colleges should be opened to them have not been wholly unreasonable.—Respectfully, M.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.—FINALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last year a young Italian was employed on a farm in this neighborhood. His name was James Fun. On being questioned about his odd surname, he said that in Italy the name of his family was Fano, but soon after his arrival in the United States "the boys" where he worked, hearing him say that he "wished to be American in everything," advised him to change his surname to Fun. He seemed to be proud of the name as of a badge of true American citizenship, and said he should always "go by it." T.

NEWBURGH, April 18, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested in reading several letters in the *Nation* relating to the transformation of names. Some years ago I had occasion to look up the history of a family whose names had been changed in a most singular way, as it seems to me. About 1641 a German named Rahmsauer settled in North Carolina. Some of his descendants afterwards removed to Georgia, then to Alabama, then to Mississippi, then to South Carolina, then to Tennessee, then to Arkansas, then to Louisiana, and finally to Texas, where some of them are now living, near Ft. Worth. I found that in something more than two hundred years the family name had undergone the following changes: Ramsauer, Ramsaur, Ramsour, Ramseur, Ramser, Ramsir, Sirram, Ram, Sheep, Lamb.—Respectfully, C.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Thanks to your correspondent who has answered a question that has been a puzzling one for so long—why the family of Darby, who gave its name to the Darbytown Road that crossed the fields of the Seven-Days' Battles around Richmond, should have spelled their name Enroughty. And, as Winchester, Mass., has told us how M. L'Arrivée has translated his name to Cummings, let Winchester, Va., too, add to the record which the *Nation* is making on this subject.

An intelligent French stone-mason, when asked how a Frenchman came to be named Betters, explained that in his native country, Canada, his name had been Le Mieux. C. L. C. M.

WINCHESTER, VA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 21, 1887, you cite the remarkable instance of the family name of Enroughty being called "Darby." As a native of Henrico County, Virginia, in which the Enroughty families have lived for generations, I can give you the local explanation of the anomaly. It is related that the first Enroughty who settled in Henrico County became so incensed and resentful at the mispronunciation of his surname—some calling it En*ruffty*, others En*rooty*, and others again En*rowty*—that he insisted, whenever spoken to, that he should be called "Darby." It is not stated that he told or was aware of the reason (that his family belonged to the sect called Derbyites) mentioned by the learned divine to whom you refer. Whatever the origin of "Darby," the family has ever been tenacious of the name of Enroughty and equally tenacious of the name of "Darby," and if a stranger should happen to call any of them by any name other than that last given, he would immediately be requested to say "Darby." In all writings, bank accounts, and poll-books—indeed, wherever it is necessary to write the true name—it is spelled Enroughty, but invariably pronounced "Darby." We read, in official reports of the operations of Grant's and Lee's armies below Richmond, of "the battle of Darbytown," but, in truth, the locality was Enroughtytown.

Respectfully yours, GEO. SAVAGE.

412 CATHEDRAL ST., BALTIMORE, May 7, 1887.

Notes.

THE second volume of the Rev. H. W. Foote's 'Annals of King's Chapel' is in the press of Little, Brown & Co., Boston. Meantime from the same firm we have the beautiful volume, 'The Commemoration by King's Chapel, Boston, of the Completion of Two Hundred Years since its Foundation, on Wednesday, December 15, 1886. Also, Three Historical Sermons.' All the arts that go to the making any book good of its kind have been employed here, on a not unworthy occasion. The parish of King's Chapel has stood on the same spot for seven generations, and embraces descendants of a subscriber to the first building two centuries ago. In that long interval it has gone over from Episcopacy to Unitarianism, and it would be hard to anticipate the judgment of a Puritan of Andros's day as to which service was the more abhorrent. The memorial volume is very interestingly illustrated with portraits of provincial Governors, ministers of the church, old views of the Chapel, etc.

The publication of Mr. J. E. Cabot's biography of Emerson is, as Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce, postponed till the autumn.

Novels being in season, G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out '7 to 12,' by Anna Katharine Green, and 'Told at Tuxedo,' a series of tales by two writers; Henry Holt & Co., 'Miss Bayle's Romance,' an English tale of a Chicago girl, "with American revisions"; Lee & Shepard, 'Drones' Honey,' by Sophie May, who has hitherto written for a juvenile audience.

Mr. Frederick A. Stokes has bought out the interest of his partners in the late firm of White, Stokes & Allen; a new book-publishing firm, C. W. Moulton & Co., has been established in Buffalo; Dr. Daniel G. Brinton retires from the editorship of the *Medical and Surgical Reporter* of Philadelphia, but will not abandon medical journalism.

'"He" and "She"; or, A Point of Honor,' by Mrs. Annie Edwardes, just published by G. W. Dillingham of this city, is an old book issued with a new name—doubtless for the purpose of taking advantage of the popularity of Rider Haggard's 'She.' It was first published a dozen years ago with the title 'A Point of Honor.'

The Messrs. Appleton are issuing, for their Spanish-American trade, a series of books on zoölogy, for primary schools, under the title "El Reino animal para niños." It must have been an oversight that they allowed their editor to print the following (we translate): "Animals are sometimes likened to different people. Porfirio Diaz, on account of his custom of weeping to cover up his evil deeds, is compared to the crocodile, and it is said that his tears are like those of this fierce and deceitful animal." The prospect of a large Mexican sale for this volume would not seem to be bright.

White's 'Selborne,' Raleigh's 'Discovery of Guiana,' and Macaulay's essays on the 'Earl of Chatham,' are the latest additions to Prof. Morley's "National Library" (Cassell & Co.).

A well-conceived 'Vacation Journal: A Diary of Outings from May until November, with Hints and Information for Tourists,' is sent us by A. D. F. Randolph & Co. The information includes the calendar, the moon's phases, the signal-service flags, postal rates, a dictionary of flowers according to their season, the laws of lawn tennis, etc. Poetical selections usher in each day. The volume is daintily got up.

The well-known work of Karl Marx, 'Das Kapital,' has been translated into English and is published here by Scribner & Welford. Although spoken of in Europe as "the Bible of the working classes," it might better be compared with the Talmud. It is incredible that more than one workman in a thousand, even among the German Socialists, should have read it through, to say nothing of understanding it; and when we consider that these two volumes constitute but a third of the whole work, it seems probable that its doctrine must always remain of a highly esoteric character. The platforms of the "Labor" party embody the more practical of Marx's conclusions; as to the premises from which they are derived, so far as they have a logical derivation, they are obtained by confounding capital with money, and assuming that men would risk their accumulations without any expectation of profit.

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Marx was not without wit, and his scurrility diffuses a certain lurid light over his otherwise dreary pages. Those who are curious concerning his life and his disciples may be referred to three letters, by the late Friedrich Kapp, which appeared in vol. xxvii of the *Nation*, pp. 81, 95, and 114.

The Rev. Samuel Orcutt, an indefatigable writer of town histories, offers as his latest production a 'History of the Old Town of Stratford and the City of Bridgeport, Conn.' In nearly 1,400 pages he has brought together a great mass of material in a rather confused and fragmentary form, but relating to nearly everything of interest or importance in the town. There are biographical sketches of all the early settlers and the more prominent citizens down to the present time, as well as valuable lists of the inscriptions in the various graveyards. The last 300 pages are devoted to genealogies, for which the editor acknowledges his indebtedness to the labors of the Rev. B. L. Swan. Stratford originally included the city of Bridgeport and the towns of Huntington, Trumbull, and Monroe, accounts of all of which are given in this work. That of Bridgeport is largely made up of descriptions of the various manufactories of the place, which read almost too much like advertisements for a history, and considerable space is also naturally given to the enterprises of Mr. P. T. Barnum. There are numerous portraits, of the marked American type, illustrations, and plans, and an excellent index. A word of praise should also be given to the typographical execution of this work, which is far above that of most of its class.

Dr. Wilhelm Bernhardt is editing for D. C. Heath a series of 'German Novelettes' (*Deutsche Novelletten-Bibliothek*), designed to furnish a convenient supply of short material for rapid reading by those who have mastered the elements of the language. The form is convenient, and the notes will be appreciated; but it is a pity that the publishers reconciled themselves to type at once Gothic and of so trying a size.

The license of book-auctioneers in mixing lots sometimes leads to unpleasant juxtapositions. We have before us a "Catalogue of a Portion of the Libraries of the late Rev. Convers Francis and his Sister, Lydia Maria Child, . . . together with Selections from Another Private Library." Scattered through this are a number of erotic titles, of the class euphemistically known to the trade as "Facetiæ," and which could be quite unerringly picked out as derived from "Another Private Library." But is it fair to the reputation of Mrs. Child and her brother to leave room for the suspicion that their collections contained such disreputable publications?

A circulating library of music has been undertaken in connection with the Brooklyn Library, and has proved to meet a real want in that music-loving community. Its composition and working are described by Mr. W. A. Bardwell in the *Library Journal* for April.

A pleasing portrait of Mrs. Cleveland serves as a frontispiece to the *Magazine of American History* for May, and accompanies an article by Mrs. Lamb on the successive ladies of the White House, as many of whom as possible are pictured. A girlish likeness of Mrs. Cleveland is also given in the *Photographic Times* for May 6, and it has not only the charm of youth and beauty, but a peculiar interest as a very successful example of "process engraving." We do not remember any portrait so well rendered as this by purely mechanical lines.

A. Battistella reviews, in a late number of the Milan *Perseveranza*, a translation of selections from Walt Whitman's verse by Prof. Luigi Gamberale ('Canti scelti di Walt Whitman: Versione e prefazione.' Milan, 1887). We judge from this notice that Gamberale's admiration of the American bard is tempered by a recognition of his shortcomings, but that his reviewer has an even juster sense of the true state of the case. The translation is praised.

The *Perseveranza*, by the way, which has, we may be permitted to think, fallen off in literary interest since Bonghi was at the helm, has begun publication of a supplementary *Rivista Scientifico-Letteraria*, in quarto form. In the first number Prof. Cognetti De Martiis introduces with approval to the Italian public Henry George's 'Protection or Free Trade'; an anonymous writer compares Tennyson and Gladstone, apropos of the new 'Locksley Hall' and the ex-Premier's comment on it; Tolstoi and Dostoyevsky are the theme ably presented by "I. B."; Prof. G. Cattaneo discusses "The New Biology"; there is a short story by Memini, etc.—a well-assorted and entertaining table of contents, meriting a more ambitious typography.

That delightful journal of folk-lore and mythology, *Mélusine*, so ably conducted by H. Gaidoz and E. Rolland, is rounding its tenth year, not, however, without a suspension, which accounts for its being only in its third volume. Last year there sprang up beside it the *Revue des Traditions Populaires*, organ of the Société des Traditions Populaires. It bears on its pink cover a Mother Goose summoning her flock, and this symbol, somewhat curtailed, accompanies the regular news item concerning the monthly *dîner de "Ma Mère l'Oye."* It would be hard to draw a line between the matters appropriate to the *Revue* and to *Mélusine*, and we can only hope that the competition of the newer periodical does not injuriously affect the pioneer.

It is well known that the *privilège* for the creation of the Opéra Français was granted in 1671 to the poet Perrin and the musician Cambert and their associates. It has always been believed that they were fraudulently despoiled of this *privilège* in 1672 by the composer Lulli. Now it seems to be established that in reality the *privilège* was fairly bought by him. The March-April number of the *Revue Historique* contains the information that MM. Charles Nuitter and Ernest Thoinan have discovered in the National Archives and those of the Prefecture of Police, and in the *études* of various notaries, all the documents necessary to complete the history of the foundation of the Opéra in the seventeenth century, and the part taken in it both by Perrin, who was constantly in debt and in prison, and by Lulli, who, it would now seem, has been unjustly accused of robbing him of it for the past 200 years.

The Faculty of Letters of Lyons is about to begin the issue of a *Bibliothèque* for the publication of independent works, instead of the *Revue* which it has issued for two years past. The works announced as in press are 'Neuchâtel et la politique prussienne en Franche-Comté 1702-1713,' by E. Bourgeois; 'La Chanson de Roland, traduction archaïque et rythmée,' by L. Clédat; 'Correspondance et mémoires inédits de M. de Biran,' by A. Bertrand.

The tenth, eleventh, and twelfth fascicules of the 'Causeries d'un ami des livres,' by M. L. Derome, have just appeared, thus completing the work, which now forms two very handsome volumes. A short time ago we gave a full account of the earlier numbers of this publication upon the original editions of the *Romantiques*. The three last published are entitled: 'Michelet et la décadence de l'histoire romantique'; 'L'aile droite de l'école romantique'; 'Eclectiques et Romantiques.' There is also a curious appendix devoted to the lost or suppressed works of Alfred de Musset.

M. Ferraz has recently published the third and last volume of his 'Histoire de la philosophie en France au xixe siècle' (Paris: Perrin). This volume is entitled 'Spiritualisme et libéralisme.' An idea of its extent and direction may be obtained from the following names, which are placed by the author upon the title-page for that purpose: Mme. de Staël, Laromiguière, Maine de Biran, Ampère, Royer-Collard, De Gerando, Cousin, Jouffroy, Guizot, Ch. de Rémusat, Adolphe Garnier, Émile Saisset. The first volume of the work was 'Socialisme, naturalisme et positivisme,' the second, 'Traditionalisme et ultramontanisme.' Only the octavo edition of the last volume is published as yet, but the others are issued also in 18mo.

The large folio edition of the 'Récits des temps mérovingiens' of Augustin Thierry, with the fine illustrations of J.-P. Laurens, which has been published by Hachette in numbers, one *récit* at a time, is well known. The same house has now issued another edition in a single quarto volume, in which the original designs are reproduced by the Poirel process. This process softens and, as it were, throws a slight veil over the reproductions, while it preserves fully the character of the originals. The *Revue Historique* praises the "scrupulous archæological exactitude" of the designs, and also their "sentiment profond de l'histoire et des mœurs mérovingiennes."

The veteran Belgian scholar, Kervyn de Lettenhove, has recently published the fifth volume of his 'Relations politiques des Pays-Bas et de l'Angleterre sous le règne de Philippe II.,' quarto (Bruxelles: Hayez). The present volume embraces the first part of the administration of the Duke of Alva (September, 1567–September, 1570).

The Harvard Summer School of Physics will open at the Jefferson Laboratory on July 12, if there is a demand for it. To determine this demand, or to obviate it, a pamphlet 'Descriptive List of Experiments in Physics' has been issued, to indicate the course contemplated for admission to Harvard on elementary experimental physics. This is the first practical step towards aiding the preparatory schools to fulfil a very difficult task. Application for admission to the proposed school should be made to Dr. E. H. Hall, 5 Avon Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

—We have expressed so much admiration of M. de Laveleye's 'La Péninsule des Balkans' (*Nation*, No. 1112), and have so warmly recommended it to our readers as a guide in the intricate field of East-European ethnography and politics, that we shall not be suspected of fondness for carping if we emphatically object to the manner in which it has been introduced to the English public ('The Balkan Peninsula,' translated by Mrs. Thorpe and published in America by G. P. Putnam's Sons). Passing over the inflated title-page, we must condemn the translation as most hastily and carelessly done, and unworthy of the original. Evidently the translator's knowledge of either language was not at fault, but she probably had to do her work too rapidly to allow reflection or revision. That the book was "edited and revised for the English public by the author," of course implies no close examination and comparison of phrase after phrase, and it surely was not the Belgian economist's task to correct verbal errors or to establish rules of English transliteration. He very likely only examined the work "in its new form" to prevent its being distorted in sense and tenor in the process of reducing the two volumes of the original narrative to the compass of the present one. We would fain grant "a lenient judgment in the matter of transliteration, upon which scholars are little agreed," but how could we excuse such a medley of English, French, and barbarous forms as we find pressed together (on pp. 141, 142, 291, 300) in speaking of the Wallach race: "Valaks," "Valaques," "Wallacks,"

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"Tzintzars," "Tzintzares," "Wallack Tzintzares," "Valaque Tzintzares"? The compound forms stand, besides, for Tzintzar Wallachs (Fr. "Valaques-Tzintzares"). Of otherwise inaccurate or unidiomatic renderings we may point out, in a few connected pages opened at random, "The Slavonish-Brod," for Slavonian Brod, or Brod-in-Slavonia (p. 72); "buffaloes and sheep," as translation of "des troupeaux de buffles et de chèvres" (p. 75); and the sentences beginning with "The saddle" (p. 70) and "Shepherds" (p. 75). And yet, even in this version, the book is well worth reading, rereading, and possessing. An additional chapter by the author, on "The Present Position of Bulgarian Affairs," and a fine map of the Balkan Peninsula, enhance its value.

—The Rev. Prof. B. B. Warfield, D.D., late of the Theological Seminary at Allegheny, Pa., and now of Princeton, has recently published in the series of manuals known as "The Theological Educator," instituted by the editor of the *Expositor*, 'An Introduction to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament' (New York: T. Whittaker). The author intends his treatise as "a primer to the art of textual criticism rather than to the science," and as preparatory to the fuller works on the subject, such as Dr. Hort's 'Introduction' and Dr. Gregory's 'Prolegomena to Tischendorf.' There is room for just such a work, for Dr. Hort's 'Introduction' is hard reading, and some students may be repelled by it. Prof. Warfield's little book consists of 225 pages, small octavo, divided into four chapters, which discuss the matter, methods, praxis, and history of criticism. Of these, the second, comprising nearly one-half of the book, is the most important, and is a working over, in a more popular and attractive form, of Dr. Hort's 'Introduction,' Part 2. Those who are familiar with Prof. Warfield's paper on "The Genealogical Method," contributed to Dr. Schaff's 'Companion to the Greek Testament and the English Version,' will find a fuller exposition of this method in the present work, and especially a clear treatment of mixture in manuscripts, which causes so much trouble in the effort to sift readings and to determine the text of the autograph. Excluding the Syrian text—that of most of the cursives, and hence of the so-called Textus Receptus—as it "was made by a revision out of the other three classes, and preserves nothing from antiquity not already in them," the Neutral and the Alexandrian texts are now arranged "as two great sub-classes of a greater class, including them both and standing over against the Western," which last is "the most corrupt of all known forms," while the Neutral is the most correct and the Alexandrian holds an intermediate position (pp. 158–160). It will thus be seen that the author is a follower of Dr. Hort. The last chapter may be characterized as very meagre, and Prof. Warfield might have enlarged it to advantage. Also, the subdivision of the chapters into paragraphs, with distinctive headings, and the addition of an index, would have facilitated the use of the book.

—George Cabot Ward, who died on May 4, after a long illness, was born in Boston sixty-three years ago. He was the son of Mr. Thomas Wren Ward, who more than seventy years ago came from Boston to this city, and, with his relative, the late Jonathan Goodhue, founded the firm of Goodhue & Ward, afterwards so well known as Goodhue & Co. In 1817 he returned to Boston, and ten years later became the American agent of Baring Bros. This agency was exclusively conducted by him until his death, when it devolved upon his son, Mr. Samuel G. Ward. George Cabot Ward was graduated at Harvard, and subsequently studied at Heidelberg, and, after a voyage round the world in a sailing ship, a rare experience in those days, settled in New York and founded the firm of Ward & Campbell, afterwards known as Ward, Campbell & Co. It contained at one time one of the Baring family, but was never, as has been stated, the agent of Baring Brothers. Mr. Ward withdrew from it in 1869, to share with his elder brother, Samuel Gray, who had moved to this city from Boston, the Baring agency, which continued in their hands until George Cabot's illness, when both brothers surrendered it, in January, 1885. George Cabot was, when the war broke out, in 1861, one of the most active and energetic supporters of the Government in this city. He was one of the founders of the Union League Club, its President for one term, and its Treasurer until the decline of his health. He was also one of the Governors, and, we believe, Treasurer, of the New York Hospital, Treasurer of the American Freedman's Aid Society, one of the trustees and most devoted and valuable friends of the Children's Aid Society, and a Director of the Bank of Commerce and of the Union Trust Company. In fact, he was one of the men who are always ready "to pay with their person" for any worthy public object, and, although of a singularly modest and retiring, and one might almost say self-distrustful, disposition, had trusts and responsibilities imposed upon him without stint. He was a man of extraordinary simplicity of character, and had a rare capacity for devotion to the interests of his friends as well as those of the public. His reading was very extensive, and his love of speculation in the field of transcendental philosophy often gave an air of quaintness and abstraction to his conversation which made one wonder that a business life in this city should ever have been to his taste. He took a great interest in the establishment of the *Nation* in the year 1865, and perhaps had more to do with putting it on a firm financial footing than any other one person. The memories of the war made him a very good Republican down to his last illness, but in no way diminished his sympathy with all efforts in the direction of purer politics. His death deprives New York of one of her most valuable citizens, and one of a type which the existing conditions of business do not foster either in politics or in society.

—The *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* for April contains the first of a series of "Études de littérature américaine," by M. Remy de Gourmont. The writer has begun these studies at the point which offers the greatest difficulty to a stranger to the country and its people, with "L'humour et les humouristes," which is the subtitle of his article. Irving, Haliburton, and Holmes are the writers examined in the present paper, with much moderation and fairness of temper, but with the inevitable failure to seize just the right shade of character and of expression which sometimes makes the observations of foreign critics such very amusing reading. M. Édouard Sayous, who wrote for his thesis for the doctor's degree in 1866 "La France de Saint Louis d'après la poésie nationale," has returned to his early affections in "La Croisade de Constantinople," which was begun in the *Revue* for March. The learning and research in these papers are carefully concealed, and it must be a very matter-of-fact person indeed who would not be carried on to the end by the easy and picturesque narrative. The profane in such matters do not always enjoy Villehardouin and the other chroniclers whom M. Sayous has here condensed for their benefit, and the most frivolous student in these scientific days is ashamed to absorb the Middle Ages through the romances of Walter Scott as the happier reader of the past once did; but perhaps the thought of the less entertaining work of M. Sayous in the *Revue Historique* may reconcile such a one to the enjoyment he cannot help finding in this "Croisade de Constantinople." Among the other noticeable articles is the second and concluding part of M. Honoré Mereu's "Destruction de Rome"—that is, its renovation now in progress. In this the writer is more generous to the renovators than his title would imply, though he is by no means sparing in his blame of either the Roman municipality or its critics, of whom the most violent could not be more severe in their judgments than M. Mereu shows himself at times.

—The Société de l'Histoire du Protestantisme Français has been publishing in its Bulletin during the present year a series of documents accompanied by notes in regard to the burial of Protestants in Paris in the last century. These transcripts are the more valuable inasmuch as the original registers from which they were taken perished at the burning of the Hôtel de Ville. For some years after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes it appears, from a contemporaneous account, to have been the custom to bury Protestants, both natives and foreigners, "dans les champs," the bodies being taken out by night and put where a place could be found for them. At length, in 1726, permission was granted for Protestant foreigners who died in France to be buried in certain designated places under strict police surveillance. Among the last who were buried in conformity to this decree was Commodore John Paul Jones, a certificate of whose burial is given in the March number of the Bulletin. From this and the accompanying notes we learn that at the meeting of the National Assembly, July 19, 1792, the day after his death, a letter was read from his friend Col. Blackden, to the Commissioner of the Police of the district in which Jones had died, asking that he might be buried without expense, "in consequence of a formality yet existing with respect to Protestants." This letter excited much indignation in the Assembly, and a member cried out, "I demand that in order to consecrate the freedom of religion the Assembly send a deputation to the funeral of Paul Jones," a proposition which was immediately adopted. Twelve of the Assembly, including the notorious Bishop Gay-Vernon and a priest, escorted by a detachment of the gendarmerie, attended the burial, which took place the next evening at eight o'clock.

—The funeral of Józef Ignacy Kraszewski, the Polish novelist and miscellaneous writer, which took place a few weeks ago in Cracow, was accompanied by as fervid and general manifestations of sympathy on the part of his compatriots as those which characterized the celebration in the same city, in the autumn of 1879, of the semi-centennial anniversary of the opening of his literary career. In fact, both celebrations were political demonstrations, but half-disguised. The admiration of Kraszewski as an author is universal among Poles, it is true with varying degrees of intensity. He is by far the most prolific of Polish writers, and the 500 volumes of novels, novelettes, historical and travelling sketches, poems, etc., etc., which have flowed from his facile pen have served to amuse, enlighten, and educate two generations; but none of his works is really classical, and Polish literary history will assign him a place below such names as Krasicki, Niemcewicz, Mickiewicz, Slowacki, or Krasinski. It was the indefatigable worker in the interest of the Polish nationality who was glorified at Cracow by myriads of patriotic enthusiasts from all parts of ancient Poland and elsewhere, both in 1879 and 1887. The demonstrations differed only in this, that the first was directed against Russian oppression, which drove Kraszewski into voluntary

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exile in 1863, and the second against Germany, which punished his patriotic indiscretions by imprisonment in a fortress in the last years of his life. This difference also decided the attitude of the Austro-Hungarian Government towards the celebrations. The martyr of Russia was treated by the Galician authorities, under directions from Vienna, with effusive attentions; not only was the martyr of Bismarck officially ignored, but the addresses in his honor were subjected to a rigid censorship.

LOFTIE'S LONDON.

London. By W. J. Loftie, B.A., F.S.A. [Historic Towns. Edited by Edward A. Freeman and the Rev. William Hunt.] London. 1887. 8vo, pp. viii, 223.

"THE towns to be treated in these volumes," says the prospectus of Messrs. Longman, "will, as far as possible, be selected with reference to the special part each played in the general history of the kingdom. . . . The object of this series, in dealing with such towns and groups of towns as may be chosen for illustration, will be mainly to bring out the general historic position of each. The purely local history of each place, municipal and ecclesiastical, while not neglected, will be dealt with chiefly as it throws light on its general position."

We are glad to see that the author of the first volume of this series diverges from the course prescribed by the above announcement, in that he places the internal municipal history of London in the foreground. Most of the books devoted to the past of particular English towns emphasize the "general historic position" of the latter; very few of them present a clear account of the constitutional development of an English municipality. In this direction England has much to learn from other countries of Europe, especially from Germany and France.

The first chapter of Mr. Loftie's work is entitled "London before Alfred." Its essence is contained in the following extracts:

"Indeed, the two chief events in the history of Roman London, the building of the bridge and the building of the wall, might alone have been mentioned, as they are the only two events of the period which had any permanent effect on its later existence. But for the wall, but for the bridge, Roman London might as well never have been built, so entire is the breach of continuity in the succession of events which follows the invasion of the Saxons" (p. 9). "Except the name of London itself and a fragment of the wall, there is not a trace of the Roman occupation above ground. It rests with those who assert the municipal continuity of Roman and Saxon London to find some sign or proof of it, however slight; but they have failed to do so" (p. 14). "It does not seem to have occurred to any one that exactly a millennium has just elapsed since Alfred founded London. . . . Though we have occasional notices of the existence of London before his time, it is only after 886 that its annals can be written, and it is only from the rudiments of a municipal constitution which Alfred planted, that the mediæval and modern corporation grew" (p. 16).

Though some eminent writers have affirmed the contrary, we believe with Mr. Loftie that there is a want of constitutional continuity between the Roman *municipium* and the mediæval English borough. In his view of the influence of King Alfred, on the other hand, he is guilty of the very fault for which he condemns the advocates of the Roman theory—that is to say, he positively affirms a fact for which he can give no proofs. Here is all that the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle says on the subject: "The same year [886] King Alfred restored [or set in order] (*gesette*) London-borough; and all the Angle race, except those held captive by the Danes, turned to him; and he then committed the borough to the keeping of alderman Ethered." Commentators differ as to the meaning of *gesette* in this passage, but all of them agree in rejecting Mr. Loftie's construction. Nor is there anything in other contemporary or later sources to support his assumption. That Alfred exerted some influence upon the constitution of London is quite probable, but more than this we are not justified in asserting.

In chapter ii, "The Portreeves," Mr. Loftie tries to simplify matters by identifying these officers with the sheriffs, chamberlain, the *justiciarius* of the charter of Henry I., and the later mayor (pp. 29, 34); but in so doing he only makes confusion worse confounded. He has, in fact, added very little to our knowledge of the portreeves; on the contrary, the reader seeking light on the subject in these pages will be confused or misled. The other salient topic in this chapter is the dissolution of the "cnihten-gild" in the reign of Henry I. Here Mr. Loftie is even more at fault than in his treatment of the portreeves. "There can now be no doubt," he remarks on page 30, "if any doubt existed before, that the governing body of London was the Knightenguild, as Stow calls it. . . . In the reign of Henry I. we find the guild in full possession of the governing rights." Its lands, he tells us, constituted "the very endowment of the portreeve" (p. 34). Now this is all pure conjecture; the author does not produce the similitude of a proof in support of these pregnant statements. Almost all that is known concerning this fraternity is that it was probably aristocratic in its composition, that some prominent London citizens were among its members, and that it was dissolved in the reign of Henry I., the brethren giving the lands of the guild to the Holy Trinity Priory. There is nothing to indicate that it was even a minor constituent part of the municipal organism—that it exercised any civic functions whatsoever. Had it been the "governing body" of London, it is highly improbable that it would have voluntarily extinguished itself in the manner described. What we have said holds true, whether we take our data from the City Archives (with which the author has only a very superficial acquaintance) or from Stow, who is Mr. Loftie's main source of information.

Chapter iii, entitled "The Mayors," deals with London in the thirteenth century. The repeated attacks of the King upon the liberties of the citizens are clearly stated, but the account of the constitutional growth of the city is very unsatisfactory. The author has much to say of the struggle between the "communa," or governing gild merchant, and the craft gilds. But the term gild merchant of London never occurs in the sources; and "communa" almost invariably means either the community at large or the commons, the populace. In only one instance was this expression used in an abstract sense, namely, in 1191, after the deposition of William Longchamp, when, we are informed by contemporary writers, the citizens erected a "communa." Instead of attempting to explain just what this meant, Mr. Loftie evades the issue by saying, on p. 39, that "this act was no new establishment of a commune." The struggle that took place in the thirteenth century was simply between the richer citizens, headed by powerful aldermen, and the commons, the *vulgus civitatis*. Mr. Loftie asserts that the gilds "interfered constantly at every election" of Mayor and other officers (p. 66). The fact is, it was the populace. In the 'Cronica Maiorum et Vicecomitum,' the principal source for the study of this period, we invariably find not the gilds, but the "vulgus," the "populus," the "minutus populus," the "populus vocans se communam civitatis," pitted against the "magnates," or the "aldermanni et discreti viri." To identify the gilds with the populace, without corroborative evidence, is as illogical as it would be to promiscuously identify the populace of to-day with the trades-unions. Mr. Loftie has thrown no new light upon the obscure questions of the inception of the London mayoralty and of the status of the London craft gilds in the thirteenth century—their constitution, their functions, and their relations to the civic authorities. Like many other writers on English municipal history, he has warped the truth by introducing into his narrative facts that are true of the development of many Continental towns, but wholly inapplicable to those of England.

Chapter iv, "The Wardens" (*i. e.*, London under the King's Wardens, 1285-1297), is mainly devoted to the early history of the London Wards. The author's strong proclivity to indulge in gratuitous guessing is very conspicuous in this chapter. On almost every page such expressions as "perhaps," "it may be," "it is possible that," "we may presume," etc., meet the eye. He is particularly fond of employing his fancy in the identification and derivation of personal or topographical names. On p. 81, for example, he derives Aldersgate Ward from a hypothetical Ealdred, whose name, he goes on to say, "may well be that of some contemporary of Alfred, perhaps the first settler in the district." Again, on p. 87, he puts forth this query: "Is Hacon the Alderman still commemorated by Hackney?" The author's identification of the Wards of the time of Edward I. with those mentioned in a list of *circa* 1115 is, in great part, idle speculation.

The title of chapter v ("The Municipality") like those of chapters iii and iv, is ill-chosen giving one a very inadequate idea of the contents. "The completion of the municipality" would have been a more appropriate heading, for it treats of the changes that took place in the constitution of London down to the middle of the fifteenth century. "From the middle of the fifteenth century the outward form has been but little altered: the municipality was thenceforth complete, and, with a few minor differences, much what it still is." The civic officers and the livery companies are the principal subjects of discussion, but the history of two important constituents of the civic organism, the sheriffs and the court of aldermen, is passed over in silence. The author frequently speaks of the "livery," telling us, for example, how in 1375 it succeeded to the functions of the ward-motes in the election of the Common Council, but he nowhere accurately defines the "livery" as distinguished from the companies at large. This chapter will certainly not give the uninformed reader a clear idea of the present power and position of the companies in the civic polity. In this and other parts of the book we have observed a tendency of the author to indulge in vague and dubious generalities, which at times seem to be put forth merely to veil a lack of knowledge. At all events, they give rise to unanswered queries. Here are some examples. "Under the three Edwards the mayoralty was still in its infancy; and the rank of 'Henry le Waleys, mayor of the city of London,' whom the citizens elected on the restoration of their electoral rights in 1297, was very different from that of Whittington or Frowick in the fifteenth century" (p. 104). But he does not tell us what the difference was. In fact, there was no material difference. "Among the wardens' reformations it is probable we may count the rule under which the election of the mayor was to be made by the commonalty rather than by the tumultuous assembly of the folk-mote" (p. 107). What is meant here by "commonalty"? Contemporary writers, as we have already pointed out, applied this very term to "the tumultuous assembly of the folk-mote." "Unquestionably the work of Walter Hervey was bearing fruit in the gradual formation of voluntary combinations of traders for the regulation of prices, and in obtaining the recognition of the Guildhall authori-

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ties." "We find, however, few, if any, traces of companies formed for the purpose of carrying on trade. The 'mistery' met for a different purpose, and was composed of men who traded each on his own account" (pp. 110, 113). What was this "different purpose"? The distinction between trade-gild, mistery, and company must be anything but clear in Mr. Loftie's own mind; and his ideas concerning their *raison d'être*, their origin, and functions are decidedly hazy. "The point of departure, the place where the history of the country and the town diverges, is the establishment of the communal idea as a working principle," namely, "the right of every free man to a voice in the management of affairs" (p. 118). We have already remarked that it is very misleading to apply the term "commune," or "communal," to the mediæval English town. The primary conception of the "commune" on the Continent was independence from external control in the management of the town government. The participation "of every free man" did not necessarily follow. In fact, it was not until long after the establishment of the "communes" that the government of Continental towns became democratic. Besides, Mr. Loftie forgets that in a preceding chapter (pp. 52-54) he made the "commune" of English towns identical with a "mercantile oligarchy" which had a monopoly of the local government.

Chapter vi, "London and Middlesex," treats of that part of the metropolis not included within the city proper. The author has made what he regards as a great discovery with reference to the signification of Henry I.'s grant of the farm of Middlesex to the Londoners. This was more valuable, he thinks, than any privilege that the latter had ever received from the crown. "It was a proclamation to all England that under the King London was a free city." The people of English towns, he argues, "were in ignorance as to the peculiar liberties of London; and if one came out to tell of them, his words might seem but idle tales; but the farm of Middlesex was a fact which could not be disputed. It was known to all who cared to know anything of English law and civic liberty" (p. 124). This argument, very shadowy in itself, loses all force when we note how inconsistent it is with what the author has elsewhere emphasized, namely, that most English towns received a grant of "the liberties of London" (p. 52), that London was "the municipality on which all the municipalities of England were avowedly or tacitly moulded" (p. 117). The latter statement is incorrect, as London was only one of several radiating centres, or exemplars, of municipal franchises; but there is enough truth in it to render absurd the author's assertion that those very "liberties of London" were "idle words" to the burgesses of England. In all probability the grant of the farm of Middlesex was viewed by the King and the citizens primarily as a simple financial transaction, the latter giving the former £300 a year for the various royal rents and perquisites attached to that county. We should like to see some authority for Mr. Loftie's statement that Kensington, Chelsea, Hackney, and other parts of the metropolis in Middlesex and Surrey, were originally "colonies of the citizens of London" (pp. 134-135). Surely the author might have given us, in this chapter, a brief exposition of the unique and cumbrous machinery by which "the metropolitan area," with its vast congeries of boards and bumbledoms, is governed.

Chapter vii. "The Church in London," consists in great part of a long succession of fatuous conjectures concerning the origin of London parishes. On pp. 154-155 the author makes the following candid admission, which applies to the whole book: "Here, as in so many other points, information fails us, not that ample records do not exist, but that no one has been at the pains of consulting them." Why, instead of indulging in speculative aerial gyrations, did not Mr. Loftie consult these "ample records"? In considering the influences that led to the growth of "London Trade" (Chapter viii) he omits one of the most important, namely, the strength of the English Crown in the Middle Ages. It was this, rather than "the organization of the trades and misteries," that led to internal peace and a sense of security; it was mainly to this, likewise, that we must ascribe "the comparatively peaceful attitude of the craftsmen during the Angevin and Tudor reigns" which the author calls a "very potent element among the causes of London commercial prosperity" (p. 184). The last chapter, "London and the Kingdom," is one of the best in the book, because the author confines himself mainly to the condensation of well-known facts, in doing which he is more efficient than in attempting to add to the sum of knowledge by original research.

There are many errors of fact in Mr. Loftie's work, besides those already noted. We subjoin only a few more. The author betrays a very superficial acquaintance with English municipal history in general. The signification of the Latin *villa* is not confined to "village" (p. 112); it was applied to municipal towns perhaps even more commonly than was the term *burgus*. It is not entirely correct to say that there was a "custom which existed in many English cities to refer municipal disputes to the corporation of London" (p. 179). Where doubt existed as to the construction of municipal laws and privileges, Oxford (and perhaps some other towns at present unknown) sent to London, but only to ask what was the corresponding custom, or usage, in the metropolis. Hereford, Bristol, Newcastle, and other municipal centres were appealed to in the same way. Not a single instance of a gild "receiving a town or city in farm" is known, though Mr. Loftie speaks of it on page 186 as a common practice. The author's philology is sadly in need of mending. The adjective "real" has nothing to do with "royal" (p. 26); nor "tailors" with "telarii," weavers (p. 49); nor "mistery," a craft, a trade, with "mastery" (p. 186). The derivation of the first two are well known: "mistery" is from "ministerium," mediæval Latin for craft. "It may be worth while," he says on page 36, "here to mention that in such a form as 'Henry Fitz Ailwin' or 'Eilward Fitz Wizel,' the 'Fitz' is used for the Latin 'Filius.'" By most readers this will certainly be regarded as carrying coals to Newcastle. But Mr. Loftie is not sure of the truth of the above statement, for on page 64 he writes: "Yet 'Fitz,' if it is indicated by *Filius* in the Latin writers, is growing less and less common." "I do not know," he continues on page 36, "when 'Fitz' became usual in London, but it was before the reign of Henry III." One requires no great knowledge of English history to assure Mr. Loftie that the Fitzes multiplied and flourished in London from the time of the landing of William the Conqueror. "The exact date of the charter [of Henry I. to London] is given by Rymer as 1101" (p. 28). No date is given by Rymer; in the latter's 'Fœdera' this grant is placed between documents of 1132 and 1135. "The great fact of Henry's charter is the recognition of London as a corporation" (p. 32). But on page 124 the author gives us to understand that, after receiving this charter, the burghers were "still unincorporated." The mediæval term "guildable" had nothing to do with gild fraternities (p. 51), but was connected with "gilds," *i. e.*, payments, to the king. Mr. Loftie speaks of an "Act of Parliament" of 1475, giving to the London livery companies "a power which they do not seem to have enjoyed elsewhere" (pp. 114, 115); on page 187 he calls it a "charter." It was neither the one nor the other, but an ordinance of the Common Council of London. It is truly insular to call the churches designed by Wren "a series of models of unapproached beauty" (p. 171). The gilds of England were abolished in 1547, not "in 1557" (p. 185).

The above strictures will, generally speaking, also apply to Mr. Loftie's 'History of London' (2 vols., 1883–1884), of which the volume before us is a condensation. But the latter contains new results, based on the Calendar of the Documents of St. Paul's, in the Ninth Report of the Historical MSS. Commission. It may be admitted that Mr. Loftie, with all his weaknesses, is now regarded "as the chief authority on the history of London" (*Athenæum*, No. 3091); we hope, however, the *Athenæum* reviewer is wrong in predicting that this volume "will long remain the handbook to the history of our greatest city."

BISHOP HANNINGTON.

James Hannington, First Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa: A History of his Life and Work, 1847–1885. By E. C. Dawson. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1887. Pp. x, 451. Map. Illustrations. 8vo.

BISHOP HANNINGTON seems to have been a very good specimen of Tennyson's Sir Walter Vivian, a "great, broad-shouldered, genial Englishman." He was frank, fearless, sincere, thoroughly good-humored, and with an overflowing fund of animal spirits. These led him into all sorts of wild, madcap adventures, and made him throw himself impulsively and wholly into everything which interested him for the time, whether it was bird's-nesting, a town-and-gown row, or a religious mission. In some respects he reminds us of Bishop Patteson, whose fate was so like his own. He had neither the latter's mental powers and training nor his high breeding, but to a similar bodily vigor and love of athletic sports he joined that faculty for strongly attaching men, as well as that single-hearted devotion to his work, which characterized the first Melanesian bishop. He is also equally fortunate with the latter in his biographer. Mr. Dawson, indeed, has done his work so well that we lose sight of the fact that, apart from Hannington's tragic death, there was absolutely nothing in his short career deserving such a memorial.

The son of a wealthy Brighton merchant, who was strangely indifferent to the advantages of a regular education, his youth was spent in almost unrestrained freedom. A little smattering of natural history, picked up in endless ramblings on sea and shore, and skill in managing a boat, seem to sum up his acquirements when, at the age of fifteen, his school life closed and he entered his father's office. Yachting excursions and volunteer drill, however, appear to have occupied his time far more than business; and his confession, after six years spent in this manner, that he was "fit for nothing but collecting curiosities," was probably not far from the truth. The mercantile profession was accordingly abandoned, and in 1868 he entered Oxford with the intention of studying for orders. As he was entirely unfitted by temperament and lack of training to be a reading man, he naturally plunged headlong into the least harmful of the dissipations of undergraduate life. When he became "captain of the boats and president of the club," his highest ambition was gratified. "I am at the head of everything," he writes. His genial disposition made him a general favorite, even with the long-suffering Dons, who "extended to him an unwritten license," says his biographer and classmate. On one occasion, "the Principal remonstrated with him by letter upon want of attention to study, and inquired how long he intended to continue 'a gentleman at large.' To

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this the irrepressible *alumnus* at once replied, 'I hope that you will in future regard me no longer as a gentleman at large, but a gentleman at "smalls!"'" In a closely contested boat race, of which there is a very spirited description, Dawson, who rowed No. 6, Hannington being 7, perceived by the shouts of laughter from the bank that something unusual was going on in their boat. "As we passed the post, and I turned to congratulate Jim upon our escape, I beheld him overwhelmed with confusion and shame. In his immense energy he had worked his nether garments almost wholly off, and the latter half of *that hard-fought race had been rowed by him*, not without frantic snatches at his disappearing raiment, garbed almost as slightly as Ulysses and his crew, as depicted upon some ancient vase!" Still, he was not wholly given over to the spirit of fun, as is shown by the following entry in his diary, giving "the details of a single Sunday, which may be taken as a not unfair example of many others: '7 A. M., Holy Communion. 9 A. M., Chapel. 10:30, 'Varsity Sermon by Dr. Goulburn; twenty-mile walk with E. Ashmead-Bartlett. 5:15, Chapel. 7:30, Service in St. Mary's. 9 P. M., Greek Testament Lecture under Burgon.'"

The next year found him at Martinhoe, a little village on the North Devon coast, where he had been "strongly recommended" to retire, that he might pursue his studies under the care of a tutor. "A place of wide-stretching moorland; dark, weather-scarped cliffs, and rocks worn and torn by the ceaseless sweep of Atlantic billows," it had a great fascination for Hannington, and he found as many temptations to neglect his books in clambering about the cliffs and exploring their numerous caves as he did in the diversions of Oxford. Here he spent a large part of the remainder of his undergraduate life, and when, after several failures, he finally succeeded in taking his degree and passing his examination for deacon's orders, he returned to it as curate to his former tutor. Whatever the motive which first prompted him to enter the Church, as soon as he was fairly at work he put his whole heart into his profession, and was henceforth an earnest, devoted clergyman, whose every thought was to do his duty to his people, and who found a vent for his superabundant activity, when the narrow limits of his parish pressed him too closely, in mission labors in various parts of England. There is nothing especially worthy of note in Mr. Dawson's account of the eight years passed at this place and at Hurstpierpoint, to which he was appointed in 1875, as Hannington's diary and letters rarely refer to matters of general interest.

In 1882 he gave up his parish in order to go as missionary to Africa. It is difficult to resist the conviction that this step was due to an impulse rather than to a real call. Undoubtedly he was perfectly sincere in his motives, and in most respects well fitted for the work; but the wild, adventurous life of the African traveller, its hardships, difficulties, and dangers, were so exactly suited to impress his imagination that we cannot help thinking that an unconscious longing for its excitements may have been mistaken for the appeals to a sacred duty. Leaving behind him a wife and three young children, he sailed for Zanzibar in May, 1882, being destined for the Uganda mission on Lake Victoria Nyanza. Mr. Dawson has been quite as successful in describing Hannington's African experiences as those of the previous portion of his life, and there are few more graphic and interesting accounts of African travel than are given in the second part of this work. This is owing chiefly to Hannington's own descriptive powers, which were of no mean order, and also to his faculty for constantly getting into scrapes which more sober travellers would have avoided. He took the ordinary route into the interior through the terrible marshes which have proved so fatal to so many white travellers. Hannington was soon seized with fever, to which was added first dysentery and then rheumatic fever. Although brought to the very brink of the grave, he struggled on until he reached the southern end of the lake. Here a camp was formed, and preparations were made for the voyage to Uganda on the north coast. During the intervals of his attacks of fever, he amused himself by hunting and making collections of birds, insects, and plants. In one of these excursions he had the following adventure:

"At about a mile from camp, he saw some animal moving through the dense mimosa scrub, and, firing, killed it. His prey proved to be a large lion's cub. The gun-bearer, seeing this, fled with every sign of terror, and shouted to him to do the same. It was time indeed to do so. The cries of 'Run, bwana, run!' were accentuated by a double roar, and, looking round, Hannington saw the bereaved parents, a fine lion and lioness, coming toward him with long, bounding leaps over the scrub. An ordinary man, encountering lions face to face in the open for almost the first time, would probably have lost all presence of mind, and, turning to run, have been inevitably destroyed. He deliberately faced round upon his enemy. The enraged lions were distant but a few paces, but they suddenly checked, and both stood, as though transfixed, glaring upon him. So they remained for some time, till Hannington, placing one foot behind the other, and still keeping his eyes fixed upon the yellow orbs before him, gradually increased his distance, and, having placed about a hundred yards between himself and the monsters, quietly walked away. But the indomitable nature of the man comes out more strongly in what followed. Most men would have concluded that they had had enough of such an adventure and have accepted their escape from the jaws of death, or at least would not have renewed the contest without assistance. Hannington was formed of quite another metal. Though the light was waning, he determined that he would return and secure the skin of the cub he had killed; so he retraced his steps. When near enough to observe their motions, he could see that the lion and lioness were walking round about their cub, licking its body and filling the air with low growlings. At this moment an unknown flower caught his eye. He plucked it; took out his note-book, pressed it between the leaves, and classified it as far as he was able; then, with coolness perfectly restored, he ran forward a few paces, threw up his arms, and shouted! Was it that the lions had never encountered so strange an antagonist before? At all events, they looked up, then turned tail and bounded away. He dragged the cub for some distance, till having left the dangerous vicinity he shouldered it and brought it into camp. Acts such as these gave him unbounded influence over his men. *They learned to regard him as invincible*, and entertained a most wholesome dread of opposing his expressed will."

After various unsuccessful attempts to obtain canoes, Hannington was convinced that further progress, for him at least, was impossible, and set out on his return to the coast. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the painful details of this journey, the record of which reminds us of Livingstone's 'Last Journals.' But for the fact that in all his dreadful sufferings "his patience and cheerfulness never forsook him," he must surely have died. Contrary to every expectation, however, he succeeded in reaching Zanzibar, and, after an absence of a little more than a year, was again at work in his old parish.

But it was not likely that a man who found tent-life in Africa, even under such circumstances, "thoroughly agreeable" to him, would long be content with the humdrum life of an English village. His intense dislike to acknowledge that he had been beaten also added to his restlessness. So it was only natural that with returning strength there came an irresistible desire to make another attempt to labor in the missionary field. The Church Missionary Society not only gladly accepted his renewed offers, but also secured his appointment as Bishop of Eastern Equatorial Africa. This puts his return to Africa on an entirely different footing from his first visit, as there can be little question that he was admirably fitted for this responsible post. He was consecrated in June, 1884, and, by the end of the next January, was in Frere Town, which he intended to make his home. This is a settlement chiefly of liberated slaves on the mainland opposite Mombasa, about 150 miles north of Zanzibar. His first work was to visit the neighboring stations and to make preparations for planting new ones. With this end in view he made a flying trip to Kilima-njaro in the spring, to induce the well-known Chief Mandara to receive a missionary. Having obtained his consent, he conducted to that region the requisite men and material to found a station, his return journey of 120 miles being made "at the extraordinary rate of 40 miles a day"—a pedestrian feat probably unrivalled in the annals of African travels. His next object was to visit the Uganda Mission, which was included in his diocese. After conferring with Sir John Kirk and the authorities at Zanzibar, he determined to make an attempt to reach the lake by the route which Mr. Thomson had just shown was practicable. This was not only the most direct way, but it was also much more healthy than the southern route. So far as he, or any one at the time, knew, the chief danger to be apprehended was from the Masai. If he succeeded in passing safely through their land, it was believed that he would have no difficulty in reaching Uganda. The Bishop, accompanied by a native clergyman and some 200 porters, found Masailand decimated by famine, and the chief obstacle to his progress the lack of food. Although nearly starving, he struggled on, until at length, in October, he got within sight of the lake. Here he left his companion in charge of the caravan and pushed on with fifty men as far as the Victoria Nile, some two days' journey from Rubaga, the capital of Uganda.

At this point, when every danger seemed to have been safely passed, he was seized by the chief of the district, acting under orders from the young King Mwanga, who had succeeded his father on Mtesa's death in 1884. After a few days' imprisonment, enduring patiently sufferings most vividly described in his diary, he was shot, his porters, with the exception of four, sharing his fate. The reason for this utterly unexpected murder is now perfectly clear. The Bishop, coming by the northern route, was regarded by the King as an emissary of the Germans, whose recent annexations of territory had naturally filled him with fear for his own dominions. Acting under the advice of his chiefs and the resident Arabs, who hated the missionaries, he killed the Bishop, to make it plain that this door to Uganda could not be opened.

Mr. Dawson's biography deserves to rank high among works of its class. If he has erred, it has been in giving too many unimportant details of Bishop Hannington's early life, some of which were of a too personal nature to print. The attractiveness of the book, which, we regret to notice, lacks an index, is also increased by the illustrations, many of which are taken from the Bishop's own sketches.

RECENT MATHEMATICAL WORKS.

A Treatise on Algebra. By Profs. Oliver, Wait, and Jones of Cornell University. Ithaca, N. Y.: Dudley F. Finch. 1887. 8vo, pp. viii, 412.

Algebra, an Elementary Text-book for the Higher Classes of Secondary Schools and for Colleges. By G. Chrystal, M.A., Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh. Part I. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1887. 8vo, pp. xx, 542.

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The Mechanics of Machinery. By Alex. B. W. Kennedy, Professor of Engineering and Mechanical Technology in University College, London. Macmillan & Co. 1886. 8vo, pp. xv, 652.

A Treatise on Surveying, comprising the Theory and the Practice. By William M. Gillespie, LL.D., formerly Professor of Civil Engineering in Union College. Revised and enlarged by Cady Staley, Ph.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1887. Large 8vo, pp. vi, 549, and tables pp. 127.

AMONG the mathematical works upon our table there are four which seem to demand special notice, both from the character of their authors and from the character of the books themselves. They are all entirely above the ordinary run of text-books. Indeed, from their size and scope they can hardly be considered as text-books at all, if by "text-book" we understand a book intended especially for use in instructing classes in schools and colleges, though they might all be so used by a teacher or professor skilful in the art of selection and omission.

The combination of three persons in the production of a single mathematical treatise is somewhat remarkable. Were it not for the title-page and the notice of copyright, we venture to say that no scrutiny, however close, would lead any one to suspect that more than one person had had a hand in the composition of the Cornell treatise on algebra. There is a similarity and consistency in the treatment of every subject from one end of the book to the other which gives the reader the impression, not that the authors had divided the work between them—one taking one subject, another another—but that some one of the three had given the final form to the whole, working upon materials furnished by the other two, or that each and every part had been the joint product of a sort of cabinet council of all three, nothing being considered as settled until it had received unanimous approval. However they may have combined their labors, the authors have undoubtedly produced a work treating a greater variety of subjects than any single volume with which we are acquainted. It was intended, the authors tell us, when its composition was commenced, "for young men who had already studied the elements of algebra and geometry, and who had had some scholarly training." "At no time have they thought of it as a book for beginners." In the form in which it is now published they say of it: "As a text-book for use in ordinary classes it must be abridged: yet its wide range of subjects makes it all the more valuable to teachers, as a book of reference, and to those bright scholars who wish either to place their knowledge of algebra on a sure foundation, or to make that knowledge a stepping-stone to the higher analysis."

And yet, with all this elaboration, the work is confessedly incomplete. We quote again: "Another edition will contain chapters on theory of equations, integer analysis, symbolic methods, determinants and groups, probabilities, and insurance; with a full alphabetical index." Here is material enough to fill another volume as large as the present one, and that, too, without treating any of the subjects in an exhaustive manner. But from the fact that there is nothing about the present volume to indicate that it is intended to be a "vol. i," and from the language above quoted, most persons will, whether rightly or wrongly, infer that it is the intention of the authors to incorporate the new matter, together with that of the present treatise, in one volume, so that the purchasers of the first edition who might desire to have the complete work, would be obliged to buy again what they had already paid for. More than that, the declaration in its present form is calculated to defeat the object in view by hindering the sale of the present edition, and thus postponing the appearance of the second. A book so multifarious in its contents greatly needs an index, and many, for this reason alone, will wait for the appearance of the second edition. So, also, will many more who may happen to be specially interested in any of the subjects not yet treated.

The authors have given to the word "algebra" an extension altogether beyond its usual signification. Many subjects which the student usually meets for the first time in analytical geometry or the calculus are treated by them. Thus, the theory of infinitesimals, and Taylor's theorem, which are usually first encountered in the differential calculus, are here treated. The chapter on imaginary quantities is a sort of introduction to Hamilton's quaternions, and free use is made of many of the terms invented by him. Our authors have also introduced several new signs, or modifications of old ones, so that a careful preliminary study of the first chapter is indispensable, even to an expert mathematician, in order to read almost any chapter in the work. Any attempt at detailed criticism would be altogether out of the question within the space at our disposal, but we can assure our readers that the work is evidently the product of a profound knowledge of almost every branch of pure mathematics, and its careful study will well repay the professional mathematician.

The title of the second work on our list is certainly somewhat misleading. It is far from corresponding to what is generally understood by an "elementary text-book." In the opening of his preface Mr. Chrystal tells us that the work "is so far elementary that it begins at the beginning of the subject. It is not, however, intended for the use of absolute beginners." But we think we can go much further than this, and affirm with a good deal of confidence that, unless perhaps under the guidance of Mr. Chrystal himself, few students could use it with profit except those who already had as much knowledge of algebra as is usually possessed by undergraduates in the last two years of their college course. Although it forms only the first part of the treatise which Prof. Chrystal intends ultimately to give us, yet as it stands it is far more extensive than any "elementary text-book" on algebra with which we are acquainted. It seems to us best adapted for those students who are pursuing a post-graduate course of mathematics. Prof. Chrystal disclaims the idea of writing a book "on the philosophical nature of the first principles of algebra," but he admits that the opening chapter is the one "which the beginner will doubtless find the hardest in the book." He endeavors to treat every subject that he takes up in an exhaustive manner. He has made free use of graphic illustrations, and, indeed, he seems nowhere to have allowed considerations of space to impose any limitations on the full development of his ideas. Prof. Chrystal gives in the present volume no indication of the subjects he intends to treat in the second part of his work. But those who delight in the manipulation of algebraical expressions, presented often in their most complicated and abstract forms, will undoubtedly wish for its speedy completion.

Both the works which we have noticed belong to the most abstract department of pure mathematics, and are remarkable for their extent, and, each in its own way, for wide departures from the methods, the arrangement, and the subject-matter of ordinary text-books. The remaining two belong to the department of applied mathematics, and are equally remarkable for the skill and clearness and simplicity with which abstract science is made subservient to the needs of practical life.

Nothing drier and more tedious can be conceived than a work on machinery, except to those who are studying it professionally or for some special purpose. But if any book on that subject could be made to interest the general reader, always supposing that he has sufficient preliminary training to understand any work on the subject, it would certainly be Prof. Kennedy's. In his way of presenting things, we are constantly reminded of the clearness and felicity of expression which have contributed so much to spread the fame of Helmholtz and Tyndall. Adopting at the outset a method of explaining the motions of machines which, from a theoretical point of view, is eminently scientific, he carries it out consistently through his whole work. Until the laws of nature are altered, and the principles which govern the motion of all bodies with which we are acquainted become something different from what they have been found to be by the philosophers and mathematicians of the last three or four centuries, the method must be always applicable. Among the numerous advantages of this scientific consistency which have suggested themselves to the mind of the reviewer in the course of the perusal of the work, we have space to mention only one. A new machine is presented to the mechanical engineer who has studied this book. It works, perhaps, in a complicated and apparently novel manner. But he knows at once how to go to work to unravel its complications, to comprehend its motions, and to reduce to simplicity what to the ordinary observer would seem an inextricable puzzle. Another characteristic of the book is the felicitous, or, as the mathematicians like to say, "elegant," manner in which the author illustrates general principles by the explanation of particular cases. These special cases are in most instances taken from machines in actual use, and are explained with a fulness and minuteness of detail the perfect clearness and intelligibility of which saves it from becoming tedious. The book is illustrated with nearly four hundred figures. Of their artistic merit we are not competent to speak, but as real helps to an understanding of the text they are admirable. They are not, as is so often the case in illustrated text-books, mere reproductions from older works, often obsolete or faulty; but Prof. Kennedy says that nine-tenths of them have been drawn by his own hand. As Wagner composed the music to his own libretti, so Prof. Kennedy made the pictures to his own text.

In our opinion, the introduction of this work as a text-book into our schools of technology cannot be too strongly recommended. The great work of Weisbach and others constructed on a similar plan are too extensive for use in an ordinary course of engineering, and they generally bristle with formulæ drawn from analytical geometry and the differential and integral calculus. However desirable it may be that all engineers should be accomplished mathematicians, yet such is not, and for a long time will not be, the fact. Prof. Kennedy's work is not too large for complete study during the ordinary engineering course. In all possible cases it solves problems by graphic or geometrical methods, and, as the author says, can be easily tackled by the engineer who is master of his drawing instruments, while with the tools of analytical mathematics he is often, we might say generally, not so familiar. Our readers, however, must not infer that Prof. Kennedy's book is in any sense superficial. It is practical, but throughout eminently scientific and thorough. Wherever it handles anything in a manner more simple and intelligible than ordinary, it arises from that "scientific tact" which is the result partly of long experience and partly of a "natural gift,"—a mental constitution alike rare and invaluable, but which seems more com-

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mon among Frenchmen than among any other people.

That scientific tact is exhibited in an equally remarkable degree in the last book we have to examine, the author of which was an American professor of the same science as Prof. Kennedy. Gillespie's 'Land-Surveying' was printed for the use of his classes in 1851, but was not published for the general market until 1855. The favor with which it was received and the rapidity with which it supplanted other works, was something extraordinary. The surveyor in a country town with nothing but a common-school education said, "This man has common sense; he knows how to put things so that common people can understand them." The civil engineer, furnished with all the apparatus of modern learning, was equally enthusiastic in his praises of its accuracy and the scientific manner in which the subject was developed, and almost every Government surveyor adopted it as his guide in surveying the public lands, a subject which Prof. Gillespie treated with special care. In the preface to his work, the author promised a second volume on 'Levelling and Higher Surveying.' Parts of this volume were printed for use in class work, but it was not finished at the time of his death. His papers were put in the hands of Mr. Cady Staley, who finished the volume, and published it in 1870. It was marked by the same characteristics as the first volume, though, of course, it interested a much smaller public. Both works have been incorporated in the present large and handsome volume, and as the work stands it is a complete manual of every part of the science, with full directions alike for the farmer who, without instruments, lays out his farm by counting his steps, and for the engineer engaged in a triangulation or a coast survey.

At the place where this review is written we have no copy of the first edition, and cannot speak in detail of the modifications and additions of Prof. Staley. We can only say from recollection that he seems to have been thoroughly imbued with the spirit and methods of the original work, and to have treated it with careful and reverent hands. For thirty years the 'Land-Surveying' of Prof. Gillespie has had no rival; in its present shape it promises to hold that position for an indefinite period to come. There is an Analytical Table of Contents covering eleven of the large pages, but this hardly compensates for the lack of an alphabetical index to so extensive a work.

A Look Round Literature. By Robert Buchanan. Scribner & Welford. 1887.

MR. ROBERT BUCHANAN speaks of himself toward the end of this volume as "a man who is far beyond all literary predilections or passions." This bit of self-criticism is the gem of the book. It is possible, however, that it is not meant to be retroactive, and he might acknowledge that some of these papers, which are collected from his critical utterances for several years past, are not the work of a mind completely emancipated. The article on Rossetti, in which he won his spurs, is, of course, not reproduced, since he has many times expressed his contrition for its errors; but he cannot praise that tenuous poet now without a left-handed dig at Burns's muse, as "the poetry of kicking up one's heels and rolling with milkmaids in the hay." The essay on Goethe, however, is the most rich in unexpected felicities of pugnacity. The "Titanic Tutor," the "Greatest Stage-Manager," the possible "very popular Parson," had he had a trifle less animation and fewer amours, the master of Arnold and Lowell, as he calls him—for this man, Goethe, Mr. Buchanan has an invincible repugnance. There is Thackeray, too, who "based a splendid reputation on the theory of suckling fools and chronicling small beer"; George Eliot, "whose writings reflected, not the lover of humanity, but the superior person"; Emerson, with "no pathos"—and so on, over big and little reputations, saving and excepting only Walt Whitman, the Socrates and Christ of American democracy, in apotheosizing whom his worshipper makes that remark respecting his freedom from "literary predilections or passions."

But, withal, one has a hearty good liking for this mighty Nimrod of a critic, who disturbs the repose of the monarchs of the forest and gives the comfortable deer of our contemporary preserves a taste of wild life. It is not unpleasing to know that the race of the Dekkars and Dennises and Christopher Norths has not died out; and Buchanan, like his prototypes, has at times that facility in blurting out a brutal truth for which the British censor, time immemorial, has had a native genius. The strength of his social and religious convictions, the energy of his beliefs of all kinds, give genuineness and vitality to his words; and the cultivated reader who still has in him a mild strain of the old English blood that loves a fighter, cannot be hard on a sturdy champion engaged in what seems less like serious criticism than a game of literary fisticuffs.

The personality of Buchanan is the real thing in the volume; his opinions—at least the literary ones—are not of so much consequence. He is a good hater, and he does not hide his talent in a napkin; he veneers his solid billingsgate with rhetoric of some color and polish; but all this must not blind us to the fact that he has ideals, and that he does truly regard the great names with which he makes free, and venerates them. He cannot refrain from the ill word; but he never tweaks the ear of a literary god without expressing his high respect for all other parts of his person. There is one portion of the book which is altogether agreeable, and it gains a considerable part of its attractiveness from the writer's personality exhibited more directly than in his criticism. It is that which deals with a few of his private friendships with literary men when he was a struggling youth. Of Thomas Love Peacock, to whom he introduced himself by one of those letters which boys of genius will write, he gives us a very charming sketch. The old man on the lawn teaching his granddaughter Italian, or in his library finding Aristophanes funnier than Dickens, or learning Spanish at eighty years to read those "Autos" of Calderon that Shelley so long ago had praised to him—all this is excellently done, with both taste and feeling. Peacock belongs to a class of Englishmen whose lives too seldom get into literature. He was "a cold scholar"—this epithet of Hogg's will stick to him as long as his name; but he presents a pleasanter picture in his old age. It is a piece of the omnipresent irony of life to find it written of that man to whom Shelley wrote those immortal Italian letters, "Italy he knew not, nor cared to know." He had never been to Paris even. He spoke freely of Shelley, not with much understanding; and his claim to have aided Shelley in forming his poetic style in 'Alastor' is ridiculous. Another interesting person on whom Buchanan throws the light of personal reminiscence is Sydney Dobell, who befriended him on his coming to London, and touched him with his peculiarly sweet and noble nature and also by the sight of his physical frailty, so in contrast with his own "rude flush of health and hope" and "audacity of physical well-being." The human feeling in both these sketches is very simple and true. The "Priory," also, was one of his harbors of entertainment, but George Eliot probably had no more unawed spectator; he represents her as always "on the tripod," on which she had sat so long that "her genius had become frozen at the fountain, and her character was veneered over with the self-pride of insight; so that, with all her apprehensiveness, she lacked sympathy, and with all her moral enthusiasm she was spiritually cold." To Buchanan, with his Lares and Penates of Democracy and Religion, she was a poor kind of Sibyl. Of Democracy and Religion there is always a groundswell in his own work, and there is much humanity in it, too; in criticism he is not well furnished, but if one is experienced enough not to be irritated by it, he will better measure and appreciate the spirit of the man who seems to put his whole heart into all he does.

Principles of Art. Part I. Art in History. Part II. Art in Theory. By John C. Van Dyke, Librarian of the Sage Library, New Brunswick. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1887.

THE fever for art instruction which seems to prevail among us, growing in part out of the self-recognized inartistic character of our time and race, develops a class of art literature which has no chance of existence in any other country than ours or England, where the conditions are almost identical. It consists mainly of rehashing judgments, opinions, and statements of fact in reference to art, with addition of personal conjectures, appreciations, and observations, in which lies the entire originality of the work. It is not enough to have read many books, even in the case of a person who has a strong personal feeling for art; the mere fact of having collated what is known and what is concluded by other thinkers is no basis for criticism, and does not qualify any one to write on art. In science a student may learn all the facts known up to his day in any specialty, and yet not have the authority necessary to form conclusions and establish generalizations which shall admit him into the category of scientific magnates. Much less, then, in the case of art, where not definite and demonstrable facts form the basis of generalization, but opinions which are their own authority are the material we must build with, can we admit as teacher a man who has only informed himself concerning and collated compendiously what has been written by others. We had to insist on this in the case of Mrs. Mitchell's 'Greek Sculpture'; the collation of *authorities* may be ever so complete and admirable, as in that work it was, and the comparative judgment of the respective value of the collated *opinions* be gravely in default, as it was also there. These are distinct elements of critical ability, if, indeed, we must admit the former to be a part of criticism, for the collater and the critic are not necessarily related, as is evidenced anew by the book of Mr. Van Dyke.

This author—whether from youth or insufficient mental breadth it is quite impossible to say—has not attained to that generalizing power which qualifies him to pronounce on so difficult a question, or justifies him in adding another to the many books which confound wisdom on art. It is seldom that a man's opinions in matters of art are of much value before he is forty; very few are authoritative before fifty; and when a man is sixty he will look back on his expressed opinions and feel inclined to burn nine-tenths of them. Mr. Van Dyke is diligent and systematic, and has laid out the scheme of his work largely, but as if it were a scientific treatise which he was constructing. He has wished to write a book for popular use, and for this purpose he has "endeavored throughout these pages to be clear and concise in statement, to be accurate as regards events of history and their effect upon art, and to be intelligible by the choice of the simplest language. The scientific has been avoided; he has not thought to write the hieratic for a small

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metaphysical priesthood, but rather the plain language of the people for all who are in any way interested in art." But the first thing in any treatise for popular education in art, as in every other branch of human cognition, is to get hold of correct fundamental principles. So far from its being, as most people suppose, easier to make a good book for primary education, the most masterly knowledge and the profoundest grasp of first principles are required for such a work, that no labor may be thrown away by the necessity of eradicating fundamental errors in education.

It is needless to question much the historical part of our author's book—history being matter of science, not of opinion; but we cannot let pass one very grave error, which shows that the writer has failed to comprehend one of the most important *facts* in art. He says:

"In treating of the ideal in Greek art, the word must not be confounded with 'the ideal' of to-day as it is understood in its contemporary application. Our ideal is but an imaginary type, 'a form seen in the mind,' a memory gathered from many impressions; and in works of art *it is likely to be as characterless as it is agreeable to the eye.* The Greek ideal was something entirely different. In the first place, the Greek physically was the most perfect man imaginable, . . . In Sparta none but the perfect were permitted to live. . . . To represent the gods, then, the Greek sculptor generalized the human form and was eclectic. He combined the excellences of the many into one perfect whole, and then made a new and individual form."

Now, there is not the slightest evidence that the Greek form was any more perfect in the days of Phidias than now, nor is there the slightest probability that it was. Nor did ideal art ever have a footing in Sparta. Mr. Van Dyke must not take his *facts* from hypotheses framed to support a false theory of art elaborated by German philosophy; and when he goes on in his historical department to talk as if he had seen statues which we have even no clear description or reproduction of, he needs to be called to order. "The representation of *soul and thought* in the statues [of the Greek gods] was apparent, but it was passive, not active; reserved, not demonstrative; silent, not boisterous. In addition, the grandeur and sublimity of Phidias's best work was materially heightened by the colossal proportion, as instanced in the Olympian Zeus and the Parthenonic Athena." This may be as good sense as we think it nonsense, but if relevant it is pure assumption. There is no indication of soul or thought in any of the Greek statues, and if there is a way of indicating soul as distinguished from thought, it is a pity Mr. Van Dyke has not given us the recipe. But in the above extracts he has dragged in questions about the ideal which have nothing to do with the history of art, and of which his treatment shows that he is utterly afield as to Greek art at least, for he absolutely fails to understand what the ideal means. We are not surprised, therefore, to find in the theoretical part a condensation of miscomprehension. Thus, quoting Hamerton's definition of the ideal, he says: "Under this definition of Mr. Hamerton's Michael Angelo, Delacroix, Millet, and Corot would be classified as idealists; whereas none of them ever tried to record a type, *build up a perfection*, or realize a universal conception. . . . For ourselves, then, in our consideration of modern art, we will wholly abandon 'the ideal.' Our theory can get on without it. It had its place, and lived and died in Greece." But there is no true art that is not based on the ideal, and Greek art is simply the greatest or truest art because it is most purely ideal. We are forced to the conclusion that Mr. Van Dyke, with all his diligence in reading and collation, has not taken the time to digest his accumulations, and has no right from the ideal point of view to thrust upon us his crude conclusions.

Finally, such a statement as this—"The architecture of the fifteenth century was favorable to painting because the Renaissance style furnished wall spaces in abundance, and demanded for its completion the services of the painters"—shows such curious ignorance of the relation between the great works of the wall-painters, Giotto, Orcagna, Fra Angelico, etc., and the fifteenth century and Renaissance, that we are persuaded that this is mere haphazard conjecture as to what wall-painting was in the fifteenth and what in the fourteenth centuries.

Baltimore and the Nineteenth of April, 1861. By George William Brown, Chief Judge of the Supreme Bench of Baltimore and Mayor of the City in 1861. Baltimore: R. Murray, Publication Agent Johns Hopkins University.

THIS is a valuable contribution to the history of the rebellion, being a clear and candid account of the memorable and shameful attack upon the Sixth Regiment of Massachusetts Volunteers by a mob in the streets of Baltimore on the 19th of April, 1861. The regiment was the first to respond to President Lincoln's call of April 15, 1861, for militia "to maintain the honor, the integrity, and existence of our national Union, and the perpetuity of popular government"; and was en route to the national capital when it was attacked.

The author, Judge Brown, was then Mayor of Baltimore, and not only did all in his power to prevent disorder, but, after the attack began, joined the assaulted troops and gallantly marched through the streets to the depot at the head of the column, and saw the regiment embark upon the cars and move out of the city upon the journey to Washington. In the attacks, four of the soldiers and twelve civilians were killed and thirty-six soldiers wounded. The number of civilians wounded is not known.

Fort Sumter had been taken by the Confederates about a week before, but as the capture had not been attended by loss of life, the author regards the fight in the streets of Baltimore as the more momentous of the two affairs, and he goes so far as to say that the bombardment and capture of Fort Sumter by the Confederates "did not necessarily mean war between North and South"; but that it was the shedding of blood in Baltimore that made "accommodation" impossible. There are many who do not concur in that opinion. The unbearable insult to the Government and the North was offered at Sumter. There was then no question of accommodation—no question about "war between North and South." War was from that moment prevailing, and the only question was when peace would be restored. There is no probability that the outrage of bombarding Fort Sumter could or would have been "accommodated." The collision in Baltimore probably had but little more effect upon the question of peace or war than a drop of blood from a tap on the nose would have in a quarrel between two gentlemen, after one had been deliberately, defiantly, and publicly slapped in the face with the open hand of the other.

The author begins his book by citing a coincidence between the collisions at Lexington, April 19, 1775, and Baltimore, April 19, 1861, and gives it as the point of difference between them that the attack at Lexington was prepared and deliberate, whereas the attack in Baltimore was a sudden "uprising of popular fury." The comparison is interesting, but is hardly sound, from the fact that the action in Baltimore cannot fairly be called a sudden uprising. In fact, this book affords abundant evidence that it was of steady growth. On the *eighteenth* of April, the day before the attack, as some regular troops and four companies of militia passed through Baltimore, "a large crowd assembled at the station and followed the soldiers in their march to the Washington station, with abuse and threats" (pp. 36–7); and in the evening of that day "a meeting of the States' Rights Convention was held at Taylor's building, where it was alleged very strong ground was taken against the passage of any more troops through Baltimore, and armed resistance to it threatened." One of the resolutions adopted said: "The massing of large bodies of militia, exclusively from the free States, in the District of Columbia is uncalled for, and is a standing menace to the State of Maryland," etc. Stronger evidence even than this that the purpose of attack was not sudden, is afforded by a letter dated April 20, 1861, from the author of this book to Gov. Andrew of Massachusetts. The author said in that letter: "No one deplores the sad events of yesterday in this city more deeply than myself, but *they were inevitable. Our people* viewed the passage of armed troops to another State through the streets as an invasion of our soil, and could not be restrained." This is about as good a description of the feeling that prevailed at Lexington as at Baltimore. As to the character of the men engaged, the author tells us that a wealthy merchant of long experience, usually a peaceful man, was indicted for participation in the riot, and that one of the leading rioters, then a young man, is now "a peaceful merchant." With these explanations of the riot, taken from the book itself, it cannot be admitted that "the attack by the mob in Baltimore was a sudden uprising of popular fury," in any sense that would mitigate the crimes committed or the disgrace of the occurrence.

The author devotes a chapter to showing that the alleged plot to assassinate Mr. Lincoln when he passed through Baltimore in February, 1861, was mere fiction; and he aims to establish the point that Mr. Lincoln's "midnight ride through Baltimore, and the charge that its citizens were plotting the President's assassination, helped to feed the flame of excitement," and thus contributed to the attack upon the troops which was made two months afterwards. The real cause of the attack, just given, effectually disposes of this attempt to make Mr. Lincoln's action, or the story of the plot to assassinate him, accountable for it.

Judge Brown, a Baltimorean, has, naturally enough, written from a Baltimore point of view. His duties in those dreadful times were difficult and dangerous, and from September 17, 1861, to November 12, 1862, he was held by the Government as a prisoner of state, and confined at Forts McHenry, Monroe, Lafayette, and Warren. Yet he does "nothing extenuate, nor set down aught in malice." He treats his subject calmly, judicially, honestly, ably; and his book, covering events of great importance before and after the attack upon the Sixth Massachusetts regiment, is written with clearness and force. He says of himself: "I was deeply attached to the Union from feeling imbibed in early childhood and constantly strengthened by knowledge and personal experience. . . . I did not believe in secession as a constitutional right, and in Maryland there was no sufficient ground for revolution. . . . It was my opinion that the Confederacy would prove to be a rope of sand." But he adds: "I thought the seceding States should have been allowed to depart in peace, as Gen. Scott advised." In justice to Gen. Scott, it should be noted that allowing the "wayward sister" to depart in peace was not a measure that he advised, but an alternative that he mentioned.

Judge Brown says he believed that their own interests and the necessities of the situation

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would induce the seceding States, after they had tried it alone, to return "to the old Union, but *with slavery peacefully abolished.*" This is a striking and novel opinion. The reasons for it are not given; nor are they to be found in the formation or action of the Confederate Government, slavery being the foundation upon which that structure was built. It is hardly conceivable that the Southern States could be so short-sighted as to leave the Union at the risk of war, and establish a new government based upon slavery, and then abandon the "institution" and return without it to the Union they had left to perpetuate it.

It sounds strangely in these times to hear that the regularly constituted authorities of Baltimore formally ordered the burning of railroad bridges to prevent the passage of troops to Washington in response to the call of the President; and that delegations—to one of which the author of this book belonged—visited President Lincoln and compelled, or at least induced, him to agree that the forces which he, the constitutional Commander-in-Chief, had ordered to the defence of the capital, should, in a time of public danger, depart from their direct route and pass around Baltimore, in deference to the wishes or the threats of people of that city.

Judge Brown well says that we are now "living in a different land and under a different Constitution," and that the results achieved by the war "are worth all they have cost." On the other hand, he believes the new state of affairs is not without its dangers, and says that "Communism, socialism, and labor strikes have taken the place of slavery agitation," and that "many people have come to believe that this is a paternal Government, from which they have a right to ask favors, and not a republic in which all are equal." He believes, also, that "there is a dangerous tendency towards the centralization of power in the national Government, with little opposition on the part of the people." But, notwithstanding these drawbacks, he says: "I rejoice to believe there is a reserve power in the American people which has never yet failed to redress great wrongs when they have come to be fully recognized and understood." In that belief we heartily concur.

The Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island; comprising three generations of settlers who came before 1690. (With many families carried to the fourth generation.) By John Osborne Austin. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons 1887. Folio, pp. 443.

THIS work is dedicated to the memory of James Savage, and is virtually a reëditing of the Rhode Island names in Savage's 'Genealogical Dictionary of New England.' It is, if we mistake not, the first attempt to do for a single State what Savage did for the original four, and as such it marks an epoch in the establishment of American pedigrees. It will hereafter be the alpha of research on the part of those who claim a Rhode Island descent. Mr. Austin's preface is singularly modest. "The material gathered in these pages," he says, "was drawn from many sources. It is presented to the reader by a clear method, requiring but little explanation, though the plan is a comprehensive one, and the arrangement in some respects original." This plan is as follows: The page, of generous dimensions, is divided into three columns—the first about the width of one of our own, the second about twice as broad, the third narrowest of all. The first column is reserved for the founder, the second for his children, the third for his grandchildren, of whom merely the names are entered. All the information displayed is first-hand, from town and probate records, deeds, court reports, tax lists, etc. Care is taken to give abstracts of wills and inventories. In a summary way we get a picture of early New England life, and Mr. Austin preserves what quaint or humorous touches fall in his way, like this coroner's verdict, "that the lad, the widow Ballou, her son, named Samuel Ballou, going into the river which runneth to the mill in Providence, to wash himself, was by a Providence of God drowned."

The critic feels like multiplying words in order to *seem* to do justice to so great and so successful a labor as this. Yet it is enough to say that Mr. Austin is a worthy disciple of Savage, bettering (with ampler resources) his example, and evincing his qualities of self-effacement and scrupulous accuracy—brushing aside foolish tradition in favor of evidence that cannot be gainsaid. We have tested this Dictionary in ways which satisfy us that it may be relied upon; its mere typographical punctiliousness is highly praiseworthy. The compiler has supplied two and a half pages of additions and corrections, and time will surely reveal others that must be made; but, owing to circumstances peculiar to Rhode Island, it is doubtful if further research will so greatly alter the record here made up that this Dictionary will ever be superseded. Mr. Austin has at least the satisfaction of knowing that no one could have performed his task better, and that he has not postponed or suppressed a more competent undertaking of the same kind. His Dictionary is printed from type, the edition is limited, and it must soon be considerably enhanced in value.

Years of Experience: An Autobiographical Narrative. By Georgiana Bruce Kirby. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE old question, "Have we a Bourbon among us?" could have been answered by the late author of this autobiography in the affirmative, with reference to her own person. An irregular connection gave her Louis Joseph, Prince de Condé, for her great-grandfather, and her family history takes us through all phases of living, from the splendors of Chantilly to California "roughing it." Miss Bruce, however, came into the world a middle-class Englishwoman, with the very smallest trace of French descent. She was plain-featured, with little æsthetic sensibility, early in revolt against the suppression of her sex in the household, against convention generally, and against Calvinism. The account of her home life, though sufficiently dreary, is interesting for its distinctly British stamp, and forms an artistic contrast to the romance of her pedigree. The independence which led her to cross the ocean for a career of her own, shifts the scene to the backwoods of Canada, where spiritual freedom and the charm of the novel landscape put a new phase on existence; and of this the cheerful reminiscence evokes corresponding feelings on the part of the reader. A greater metamorphosis was in store for the young teacher when she took service in the family of the Rev. Dr. Gannett of Boston, and was presently encouraged by him to seek admission to Brook Farm.

The chapters relating to this social experiment are much the most valuable in the book, yet are disappointing as a description of the every-day working of the community. It is extraordinary that, with so many men and women of fine literary gifts among the founders and inmates of Brook Farm, not a single plain, unvarnished report has been written of what went on there, what tests of membership were applied, how labor and wages were apportioned, what the farm products were, the whole course of development into a Fourierite phalanx, and the final collapse. Not even a diary of this character has emerged, and we doubt if any could have been kept except by some one with a sense of humor that would have prevented either his joining or his remaining with the association. We say this not unmindful of the author of 'The Potiphar Papers,' who is commemorated by Mrs. Kirby for his delightful singing and playful masquerading as Fanny Ellsler; or of our esteemed contemporary, the editor of the *Sun*, gratefully remembered as a stimulating teacher of German at Brook Farm, unconscious of his latent capacity for comic journalism. Mrs. Kirby's recollections are personal rather than systematic, and are vitiated by a feminine disregard of chronological particularity. She vindicates Margaret Fuller against Hawthorne in the best manner, by quoting letters from her which reveal her kind and generous nature. She touches off Lloyd Fuller, Margaret's youngest brother, "a large-headed, loose-jointed lad of sixteen, with some down on his upper lip," who did keep a diary, "principally, it would seem, for the purpose of letting others understand his opinion of them, for he tore pages out, occasionally, and dropped them where those he had criticised severely would be likely to pick them up." To the head of the community and "the master of moral philosophy," sitting in the hall library, Miss Bruce was once moved to confide her satisfaction in her environment:

> "At first he did not hear me; then I spoke louder, leaning over the banisters:
> "'Mr. Ripley, Mr. Ripley, I am *perfectly* happy.'
> "It had seemed to me abundantly worth while that he, who had been prominently instrumental in bringing this happiness about, should be apprised of the fact. But he only glanced up with an absent expression, and said:
> "'Ah, indeed!'
> "And my high spirits received a sensible check. I had not spoken at an opportune moment, nor could he immediately withdraw his attention from the book he was reading."

Many other amusing passages would invite quotation did space permit. Under the Fourierite régime, "the word went abroad that Brook Farm wanted skilled mechanics in place of transcendental enthusiasts, and they began to come. The *women* were, as a rule, inferior to the men, and with less executive ability than the late poetic dreamers. It was plain that there could be no congeniality between the new-comers and those who had been so united under the first dispensation. The charm was swiftly dispelled." By and by, "the mechanics who were to be the bone and sinew of the new order, had raised the cry of 'democracy,' 'aristocracy,' in their most senseless acceptance, and had especially assailed Messrs. Ripley and Dana." The end was close at hand.

No change could seem greater than from Brook Farm to Sing Sing prison, where Miss Bruce next sought occupation as an assistant matron with Mrs. Farnham and Mrs. Mary Ann Johnson. This chapter offers a high degree of painful interest, and is in every way profitable reading. Seminary teaching in Illinois followed, and then plantation (white) school-teaching in Missouri, furnishing inside views of slavery; whence, by an easy transition, returning to the East, Miss Bruce became governess in the house of Robert Purvis of Philadelphia. Her final chapter is a bundle of anti-slavery reminiscences, in which we notice some confusion of dates and some improbabilities, for which the lapse of time is responsible.

As this book doubtless went to press without Mrs. Kirby's revision, we will not insist on the typographical errors in which it abounds. None is more remarkable than "Jonesbery" (p. 135) for Jones Very; though "Francis Wright Darnsment" (p. 278) for Frances Wright Darusmont ranks not far behind.

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Studies in Musical History. By Louis S. Davis. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887. Pp. 164.

ALTHOUGH occasionally somewhat dry and didactic, this brief collection of essays is well worth the attention of music-lovers, few of whom can read it without learning something new and interesting, and without a freshened enthusiasm for what is best in their art. The author is evidently an organist. In the two chapters on his instrument, he points out many of the commonest faults of organists, one of which is the mania for improvising, notwithstanding that there is a vast amount of available music by the greatest masters. "Suppose that any person of ordinary musical talent should call together an audience and improvise for their delectation on the piano, violin, or any other instrument; how long would it be tolerated? Yet in the performance of the most sacred office of music, this impertinence goes unchallenged." In a paper on the Choral, Mr. Davis justly inveighs against the absurd titles, such as Uxbridge, Manchester, Birmingham, etc., given to church hymns, and pleads for the introduction, in place of these vapid productions, of the meaty German chorales. A very few of these "have found their way into our hymnody, and the fact of the popularity of such hymns as Dundee and Old Hundred shows that the introduction of the whole Luther choral would be by the mass of the people welcomed and adopted." "In Germany children are taught to sing the choral just as they are taught to read and write. These hymns are the heritage of the people, and the school-children know them, not by some irrelevant, meaningless title, but by that one text which they were intended to interpret." The "Use and Influence of Bells" is the title of a long chapter in which Mr. Davis, among other things, remarks on the influence bells have had on architecture. It is to them that churches owe their towers, which were originally built in order that the summoning tones might be heard at a greater distance, and less harshly near by. Many are the ecclesiastic and domestic associations connected with bells, and yet the bell has had its day, as Mr. Davis admits. The watch and the newspaper have taken its place as an enunciator of time and of events, and the complaints of invalids and others that bells are a nuisance have not remained unheeded.

Among the other essays in this volume those on "Color and Thought in Music," "Teachers and Taught," and "The Modern Song" are the most readable. The first named contains an excellent page on the influence which *association* has in determining our musical likings. "A Scotchman once said to me that he would rather hear the bagpipes than any other instrument. I thought it bad, not to say execrable, taste. On me it produced only the effect of sensation, but on him that of beloved association." The following is also worth quoting: "Men want exact thinkers nowadays in music as in philosophy. We don't want love-songs tacked on to psalm tunes, nor sacred texts found in the company of Moody and Sankey."

Les Solutions Démocratiques de la Question des Impots. Par Léon Say. 2 vols. Paris. 1886.

M. SAY has, in his latest work, produced a study which ought to be in the hands of every thinking workingman. The demagogues (and they are not all politicians, for some who profess to teach political economy are strongly tinged with the true demagogic spirit) flatter the laborer that, by a sudden revolution, the social structure may be changed so as to obliterate the distinction between capital and labor, to make the laborer other than he is, and independent of his daily toil. We have been surfeited with treatises on the labor question, ranging from those which tell the workingman to stay where he is and accept his destiny, to those which coddle him and flatter him with the hope that all may be his, did he only act. It is pleasant to light upon such a study as that of M. Say, for it holds out no ready-made scheme of universal happiness; it takes men as they are. Moreover, it carries the war into the camp of the discontents, and, taking up the claim of the enemy, subjects it to analysis and criticism, showing that both practice and theory prove that the means are inadequate to the proposed objects, and are even ruinous and destructive to those who resort to them. This is the true function of the economist; and for this task M. Say is peculiarly fitted, by an inherited aptitude, by careful study, and by a wide practical experience as a banker and a man of affairs. To these qualities he adds a clear and concise style, contrasting strongly with the involved paragraphs of the dreamer who seems hardly conscious himself of what he desires.

Taxation forms a convenient instrument for working injustice under the pretence of effecting a public benefit, and it is as weapons of offence that some of the earliest forms of taxation meet the student, and especially in the customs, where the idea of discriminating between native and foreigner has always availed. It is a like abuse of the tax function to levy taxes upon one class of the community for the benefit of another, or to tax one class and exempt arbitrarily another. Though the tariff may again be cited, that is not a democratic instrument, and it is not the tax which is urged by "democracy"—by which M. Say means the workingmen. Their end, they believe, can be better attained by a graduated income tax, and this is proposed in the platforms of the "labor party" in the United States as well as in France.

The idea of a graduated tax, based upon a division of the population into classes, is an old one, and the crude attempts to frame a capitation tax graduated according to the rank of the taxable, show how naturally the conception of such a tax arises. It is hardly necessary to say that such a tax, no matter how minutely apportioned, is one of the most arbitrary and unequal that can be laid, and it was not long before it was discarded. While this idea of graduating taxes is of ancient date, it was intended to work justice by equalizing burdens; to make it an instrument of injustice is a refinement of modern times which has arisen in a not unnatural manner, and nowhere more logically than in France. For centuries there was a struggle against personal taxes and in favor of taxes on real property. The system of personal taxes lent itself with peculiar readiness to inequality, and, when subject to the capricious rapacity of a king, the greed and interest of a farmer of taxes, or even the general laws of the land controlled by certain classes of the community, the inequality became still greater. So that, at the time of the French Revolution, it would be scarcely an exaggeration to assert that in no two provinces of the kingdom were taxes assessed and collected in the same manner, hardly two persons in the land paid taxes according to the same rule. Property counted for nothing as a basis of assessment—the individual was all; and a glance at Taine's 'Ancien Régime' will show to what an extent personal taxes were engines of oppression. The very name *taille* or *corvée* awakens no thoughts unattended by conceptions of dire tyranny.

To abolish this inequality and substitute for it equality was the aim of the democracy which grew out of the Revolution; and in furthering their views they had the support of the economists of that day, to whom the system of personal taxation was no less obnoxious, both in theory and in practice, than it was to the people. The details of what was accomplished need not be recounted; in the end a double tax on income resulted. The capitation tax, by being divided and subdivided according to rank or profession, becomes in reality a tax on income, like the class-tax of Germany, while the principles of a land tax are extended to personal property; and, from taxing the property or capital, it is but one step to taxing the income derived from that property or capital.

Later it is seen that the progress of reform divorces it from justice. Instead of continuing to seek to equalize burdens and sacrifices by applying the principles laid down by political economy, the new democracy turned against their former oppressors—the rich and privileged—and, by the very instrument which, if properly controlled, would produce a new and just tax system, they sought and still seek to pull down capital, which they still regard as their oppressor. Whether persons or property are to be taxed, income or capital, the idea is the same—to impose a heavier burden upon the rich, or rather upon the capitalist, than a true adjustment of sacrifices would demand. In other words, taxation is to become an instrument for effecting a new distribution of wealth, for transferring wealth from those who have to those who have not.

It is through the machinery of a graduated income tax that this new system is to be made effective. But how is the tax to be assessed? To judge by outward appearances is most unsatisfactory, though the French adopted at one time the rents of buildings as a gauge of the occupants' income. Proportionality would seem to be the only safe rule: double or treble the income, double or treble the tax. This is not the rule that has been adopted, for, after a few stages, it becomes unendurable, practically amounting to confiscation. To obviate this difficulty, the supporters of the system frame a scale, say one per cent. on incomes less than $2,000, two per cent. on incomes from $2,000 to $5,000—a scale which is not only purely arbitrary, but results in restoring that personal taxation which prevailed in the last century. Where the scale is high, it is destructive to capital, and where it is low it is unproductive of revenue. In any case there is danger of tapping the stream which supplies trade and industry with the aliment they require, and on which national progress depends. Wherever it has been tried (and M. Say examines in detail the systems of taxing income in England, Germany, France, Switzerland, and Italy), it has failed of its purpose, and has introduced an element of uncertainty, and almost of oppression, which has proved noxious to the best interests of the community. Nor should the efforts to tax incomes made in the United States during the last war be omitted, though M. Say takes no notice of them. The short experience at that time proved how impossible it was to assess and collect an income tax under the Federal Government, even when the idea of graduation had been applied; and certainly no State could attempt a like measure without doing violence to its economic welfare.

The zeal of Proudhon in behalf of the workingman can hardly be questioned, yet no one could be more intensely prejudiced against the graduated income tax. At the other extreme stands Mill, who denounced such a tax as graduated robbery. In the light of such severe condemnation by labor reformers and orthodox economists, and in the face of a full experience which has not shown brilliant results when confined within safe bounds, it were madness to advocate so dangerous a remedy, and one so capable of being abused. Dangerous it would be, for what situation could be more replete with danger than one in which taxes are collected from one part of the community to be expended by another?

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Nearly fifty years ago M. Thiers sought to check Socialism by showing how impracticable and mischievous were the schemes advanced by Socialists. M. Say's treatise should be placed with Thiers's 'La Propriété,' for it has the same object in view, and is even more timely and practical.

The Aztecs, their History, Manners, and Customs. From the French of Lucien Biart. Authorized translation by J. L. Garner. 1 Vol. 8vo, pages 342. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1887.

THIS book contains nothing new, and yet, despite this most damaging fact, it will be found to have a certain use in so far as it gives us the history of these people as it is usually told, together with an account of their civil and religious polity and their manners and customs, in a more compact and convenient form than we remember to have met with elsewhere.

Brief as this criticism may be, it is all that the work calls for, and we should feel justified in dismissing it without further notice, were it not that, in view of the modern method of investigation, the plan which our author has followed of repeating the accounts of the early writers without a word of explanation or a note of warning (except, perhaps, in one instance), seems to invite comment. And here it may be well to premise that we do not propose to concern ourselves with the story of the wanderings of these people before they finally settled down in the valley of Mexico, nor do we intend to question the accuracy of the account here given of the career of conquest which they are said to have subsequently followed, and which resulted in placing them at the head of the confederacy that opposed the advance of Cortes. All that we are told on these points may or may not be true; but as it can be neither proved nor disproved, it may be passed over with the simple remark that it is not more impossible or improbable than are many of the stories connected with the early histories of Greece and Rome, which we were once taught to regard as fact, but which are now looked upon as fable.

What, however, we do object to, is the false idea which a perusal of these early records must inevitably give of the social and political condition of the ancient Mexicans, unless they are accompanied by a friendly word of caution as to the proper mode of interpreting them. Formerly no such warning was ever given or deemed necessary. We accepted the accounts as they came down to us literally, just as is often done to-day, and hence the prevalence of the extravagant ideas as to the high type of civilization of which these people are assumed to have been the exemplars. For this mistake on our part, the old chroniclers are not wholly responsible. They have not, as a rule, been guilty of any intentional misstatements, neither have they indulged in any very great amount of exaggeration, save when it became necessary to magnify the courage and achievements of the Spanish conquerors; but it is we who, failing to make due allowance for the circumstances under which they wrote, have persistently misunderstood them. Thus, for instance, when one of these old worthies, making use of the only terminology with which he was acquainted, describes an Indian pueblo and its inhabitants in terms that were suited to the Court of Madrid and the Church of Rome, but which were totally out of place in the connection in which they were used, we do not interpret them by what we know of the manners and customs of the Indians who were here when the Europeans first arrived, as indeed we ought to do; but we endeavor to read them by the light of the civilization that prevailed in the Spanish peninsula at the time of the conquest, and this of course, leads us into error. Fortunately, however, all this is now in process of change. The comparative method of study, now so generally employed in investigating questions of this character, has been used by writers like Morgan and Bandelier with brilliant results; and, thanks to their efforts, we are gradually arriving at a correct appreciation of the position which the Aztecs, or, as we prefer to call them, the ancient Mexicans, had reached in the scale of development.

Under this mode of treatment, Montezuma, "the King," disappears, and in his place we have a simple war chief, such as might have been found among the Creeks, the Iroquois, or any other of our "military democracies." Rude communal houses of mud and stone are no longer described as "palaces" with marble columns, etc., and we have ceased to speak of a medicine lodge on top of a mound as a "temple." So, too, we have come to recognize the fact that industries and institutions which were once thought to be characteristic of the Mexicans, and upon which their claim to a higher civilization was based, were not unknown to the Indians east of the Mississippi and south of the great lakes. A counterpart, for example, to the Mexican merchant might have been found in the Huron peddler who travelled hundreds of miles in search of a purchaser for his wares. The famous feather dresses which so captivated the fancy of the Spanish chroniclers did not, probably, differ from the "match coats" that were in such general use among our own Indians, except in the brilliant plumage of the birds from which they were made; and a "public treasure," or general purse, made up by voluntary contributions, or by tribute from conquered tribes, and devoted to the exercise of tribal hospitality and to defraying what may be justly termed public expenditures, was common to the Iroquois, the Creeks, and the Florida tribes as well as to the Mexicans.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this branch of the subject further, though it would be an easy matter to swell the list of these resemblances to an indefinite extent. Enough, however, has been said to show the method of investigation that is now generally adopted, and to foreshadow the conclusion towards which the researches on this point now tend. Indeed, we might even go further, and venture the assertion that among the aborigines of America there prevailed at this time but one phase of development from Canada to Panama. Differences, no doubt, there were among the numerous tribes that held this region, in their domestic arts, their customs, and, possibly, in their forms of worship; but these are believed to be differences of degree and not of kind, and they consequently do not imply a difference in the civilization of the peoples among whom they were found. Probably there exist to-day, and within this city, greater differences, and more of them, than could have been found, at the date of the Spanish conquest, in the whole of the two Americas from Greenland to Tierra del Fuego.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Friend in Need: A Household Guide in Health and Disease. Boston: Cupples & Co. 75 cents.
Badlam, Anna B. Suggestive Lessons in Language and Reading. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.65.
Bernhardt, W. Deutsche Novelletten-Bibliothek. Band I. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Bourinet, Dr. J. G. Local Government in Canada: An Historical Study. Baltimore: N. Murray. 50 cents.
Dahlgren, Madeleine Vinton. Lights and Shadows of a Life. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
Dayne, J. B. In the Name of the Tzar; A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Del Mar, E. H. Classified Business Directory of Mexico, Central and South America, Cuba and Porto Rico. Spanish-American Commercial Co. $10.
Greene, H. The Blind Brother. A Story of the Pennsylvania Coal Mines. Thomas Y. Crowell. 90 cents.
Health of Our Children. Boston: Cupples & Co. 75 cents.
Hodges, Katherine. Fifty Years a Queen. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Hughes, T. P. American Ancestry. Vol. I. The City of Albany, N. Y. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons.
Hylton, J. D. Arteloise: A Romance of King Arthur and Knights of the Round Table. Palmyra, N. J.: The Hylton Publishing Co.
Jackson, Helen (H. H.). Between Whiles. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.25.
Kellogg, Dr. A. H. Abraham, Joseph, and Moses in Egypt: A Course of Lectures. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Kennard, Nina A. Mrs. Siddons. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Kirkland, J. Zury, the Meanest Man in Spring County. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Kirkman, M. M. The Handling of Railway Supplies; Their Purchase and Disposition. Chicago: Charles N. Trivess.
Knight, Mrs. A. A. A Primer of Botany. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35 cents.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Outlines of Logic and of Encyclopædia of Philosophy. Dictated Portions of the Lectures of Hermann Lotze. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Fine Arts.

SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.—I.

THE ninth exhibition of the Society of American Artists, now open at the Yandell Gallery at Fifth Avenue and Nineteenth Street, is the best the Society has yet held. It is not a large exhibition, containing but 148 numbers in all, but by reason of the high average of the work, and the excellent arrangement of the pictures on the walls, it ranks far above any other exhibition of native art of the present year. The small number of contributions from Europe is remarkable. At other exhibitions of the Society Mr. Sargent, or Mr. Dannat, or Mr. Whistler, Mr. Donoho, or Mr. Harrison, among the members of the Society, have sent pictures of note, and other painters in the foreign colony have forwarded a fair proportion. This year we find only Mr. Davis's two landscapes, Mr. Melchers's small genre, Mr. Metcalf's and Mr. Hitchcock's and Mr. Stark's three pictures, or six in all. A pastel head by M. Rajon is to be added to these, and the rest is home work. As to originality, there are very few conventional canvases. Mr. Metcalf's "Goose Girl," No. 96, an excellent outdoor study of a peasant girl at Grez, with the Grez willows and the familiar River Loing as a setting, is one, however; being exactly like a dozen other pictures painted at Grez by other artists, and painted with the eyes of others. Mr. Beckwith's portrait, No. 6, and Mr. Rice's portrait, No. 110, may be likewise criticised for a leaning to the methods of Carolus Duran. Mr. Blum's "Venetian Palaces," No. 13, is not without resemblance to the work of Rico; Mr. Chase's portrait, No. 30, shows slightly the influence of Whistler; and in Mr. Cox's large decoration, No. 37, there is a suspicion of unconscious imitation of some of the work of the Venetians. It is hypercritical, perhaps, to pick out these few instances for remark, for they are unoriginal to a degree only. In general, as we have said, originality is the stamp of this exhibition, and is all the more striking in that it is so diversified. It is as noticeable in the landscape as in the figure work also.

To begin with the latter, could there be a more personal piece of painting than the "Portrait," No. 16, by Robert B. Brandegee? It is an admirable head, exactly yet freely drawn, broadly painted, without a suggestion of endeavor to be flippantly clever. It is natural, honest, and real. It has some defects, it is true, such as a slight muddiness of color in the shadows, and a lack of simplicity in the modelling of the chin; but these are lost sight of in looking at the head as a whole. It is free from affectation, and has a completeness about it that makes of this painting of the simplest of subjects a real work of art. The "Portrait of Mrs. H.," No. 28, by William M. Chase, exhibits some of the best qualities of good painting. The full-length figure of a lady in walking costume is real and life-like; in the painting of it, all things of moment are properly insisted

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on, without undue attention to detail. It is one of the eminently original works in the exhibition, though it may not be essentially different in treatment from other portraits by the same artist, who must now be conceded a position by himself. He has a style of his own and is strong enough to have followers. His "Portrait of My Sister," No. 32, is charming. The naïve, girlish pose of the figure is thoroughly in character, and there is a delicacy of observation in the painting of the various parts of the white dress productive of the keenest sort of pleasure. The head is well modelled and fresh in color, and the figure again, as in the other painting, is well drawn. These two portraits are enough in themselves to give Mr. Chase a dominant place in the exhibition, but we find in "Portrait," No. 31, a small half-length of a seated figure of a lady, another delightful little bit of color and the most skilful sort of painting; in "Landscape," No. 29—a simple motive of land and sky—a delicate note of color; and in "Prospect Park, Brooklyn," No. 32, one of the most refreshing and truthful little transcripts of nature, smiling in the sunshine and full of light and air, that it would be possible to imagine. It is only at the Society of American Artists that we are accustomed to see Mr. Chase's work exhibited, and he has never been seen to better advantage than he is this year.

Edmond C. Tarbell, a new name in New York exhibitions, makes an unequivocal success with his "Portrait of Miss S.," No. 121. This young lady, in her well-fitting gown of black silk, standing by a small table with a wrap of silk and fur at her feet behind her, is of a type such as it is not easy to paint successfully. The face is subtle; it is not simply pretty, nor is it of the strikingly handsome style, more common in women of maturer age than this young lady. It is refined and delicate, sweet in expression and rather negative in character—something very American, and yet without the distinguishing marks of race, as we find them in the women of Europe. Now Mr. Tarbell has made of this portrait a picture that is good in every way. From the technical point of view it is simply and directly painted; the figure is well placed on the canvas and is well drawn. It is agreeable, almost handsome in color. From the point of view of the general observer, it is a beautiful picture of a refined and gently bred young lady. There is scarce a fault to find with the painting, it is so even throughout. If it does not possess the personality of the work of Mr. Chase or Mr. Brandegee or Mr. Dewing, it has a charm of its own to distinguish it. This portrait must be classed well up among the best things in the gallery. Dennis M. Bunker, in "Portrait," No. 21, has painted a life-size sitting female figure which is as remarkable for positiveness of type as Mr. Tarbell's is for the absence of it. The head is intellectual, and the face seems to be that of a person of strength of mind and force of character. There is an air of gravity in the simple black costume in which the figure is clad, in the plain arrangement of the hair and the absence of ruffles or ruches about the neck or wrists. The background to this sober figure is a simple mass of gray, as severe and unadorned as the figure itself. It is pleasant to find an artist laying out for himself such a serious study, and Mr. Bunker has in the main been successful in his treatment of it. It is somewhat hard and edgy in parts, like some of Mr. Thayer's work—notably in the turn of the side of the face, which does not round off into the background, but has a papery, flat look. The black of the dress is of a handsome tone. Most remarkable, however, is the important element of drawing.

A small half-length figure of a lady in evening dress of black, with the head seen in profile, "Portrait," No. 49, by T. W. Dewing, is of a sort only to be found at the exhibitions of this Society. That such a delicate bit of refined drawing and color would hold its own in another exhibition, among whatever gaudy landscapes or carmine-cheeked milkmaids it might chance to be placed, no one can doubt; but here, surrounded by congenial company, on a wall adapted to an art exhibition, it may be properly seen, and, thus seen, cannot fail to be appreciated. It is one of the gems of the exhibition.

Such a collection of portraits as these half dozen we have been discussing is enough of itself to place the exhibition on a high level. But there are other portraits here which invite notice: "Portrait of a Young Lady," No. 72, by Miss W. D. Hawley, is an excellent little head, well drawn and simply modelled. "Portrait of a Child," No. 35, by Kenyon Cox, a small profile head of a little girl, though almost devoid of color, is refined in treatment, and is a clever piece of drawing. "Portrait of Mrs. R. W. G.," No. 60, by Wyatt Eaton, a half-length picture of a lady, is remarkable for some excellent qualities of color, notably in the hands, and for an air of repose and dignity in the subject. "Portrait of Mrs. J.," No. 96, by Wilson de Meza, an outdoor study, possesses considerable truth of observation; the head especially being successfully modelled, with the subtle gradations produced by the diffused light of the open air. "Portrait of Miss Phoebe Russell," No. 110, by W. M. J. Rice, a life-size, full-length figure in Florentine costume, though somewhat empty and loose in construction, is broadly painted and good in general effect. "Portrait," No. 62, and "Portrait," No. 63, by Miss Rosina Emmett, and "Portrait," No 147, by Irving R. Wiles, have serious qualities, and are creditable productions even when judged by the high standard which prevails about them. "Portrait of a Child," No. 6, by J. Carroll Beckwith, is as cleverly painted as usual, but it is not of this artist's best. Directly and accurately drawn, it is inharmonious in color. "Portrait Head," No. 51, and "Portrait of Lady and Dog," No. 53, by Thomas Eakins, are curious specimens of the work of a man of reputation whose presence here can only be accounted for on the supposition that traditions have some weight in the Society as well as in less progressive bodies of artists. In sculpture, "Portrait Bust," No. 71, by J. S. Hartley, well modelled and strong in character; "Bust of J. Carroll Beckwith," No. 17, by George T. Brewster, which is fleshy in modelling and life-like, though not over just as a likeness; "Portrait of a Lady," No. 61, a bust in plaster by F. Edwin Elwell, a refined and simply treated head of a young woman; and "Portrait of a Lady, Bust in Bronze," No. 139, by Olin L. Warner, must be noted in the long list of portrait work in the exhibition. It is in portraits more than in any other sort of work that the greatest progress seems to have been made since last year. Of the landscapes we shall have to speak at another time.

Mr. Kenyon Cox, in "Painting and Poetry," No. 37, has carried out a happy idea of painting, in the form of a decoration with life-size figures, the admirable design for the dedication to his well-known illustrations of the 'Blessed Damozel.' It is not greatly to his discredit that he has been only partially successful. The painting of the nude figure which personifies the Art of Painting seems to be perfunctory and without truth of form. The legs and feet are by no means well drawn. The head, which, in his small drawing, was excellent in character, amounting almost to a creation of a new type, is here ordinary and coarse. The best part of this figure is the torso, in which there is really good painting of the nude. Much better in ensemble is the draped figure of Poetry. This large canvas, in spite of faults of detail, is in general exceedingly effective. It is agreeable in tone and finely composed.

"Woman and Swan," No. 123, by Abbot H. Thayer, is, we take it, but another title for "Leda," long a favorite subject with painters: there is such a delightful chance to contrast the flesh tones with the dull white mass of the swan's feathered body, such a rare opportunity to paint a woman's hand nestling caressingly on the bird's white plumage, such graceful lines to be found in the curve of his neck and in the recumbent figure of the woman. Mr. Thayer's picture is an unequal performance. On the one hand, the woman's right thigh and knee, with the muddy brownish flesh color and hot brown patches of paint to represent shadows, are most disagreeable; on the other, her neck and bosom are luminous and beautiful in color and delicate in modelling. The well-poised head is well drawn and simply painted, but it is outlined with an ugly stripe around the edges which cuts it out as sharply as if it were made of paper. This is a picture with excellent qualities and striking faults. Mr. Thayer's work is becoming more and more mannered. It is a long step downward from the "Portrait of a Lady with the Horse," the admirable picture shown by him in one of the Society's first exhibitions, to the "Woman and Swan"; yet if he were a new-comer, the "Woman and Swan" would make him distinguished.

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